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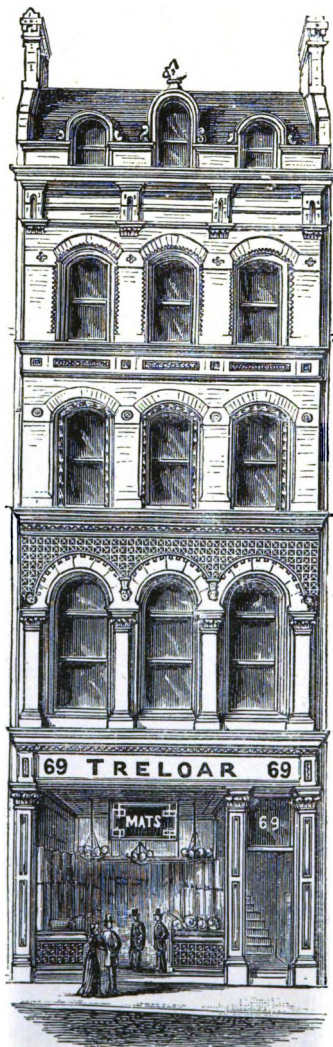
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**THE**  
**HISTORY OF THE YEAR.**



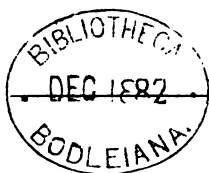
# THE HISTORY

OF

# THE YEAR.

*A NARRATIVE OF THE CHIEF EVENTS  
AND TOPICS OF INTEREST*

FROM OCTOBER 1, 1881, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1882.



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## PREFACE.

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A GREAT living statesman has remarked that the history of the last thirty years is that which is least accurately known to the present generation. The observation would be almost equally true if limited to a much shorter period. In an age which is one of action and excitement, rather than of reflection and meditation, it is difficult for most people to keep in remembrance the facts of even the immediate past. Events which seem for the moment of overpowering importance are forgotten a few months after they have occurred; or if the broad outlines are vaguely present to the mind, details are confused and misunderstood. Yet there never was a time when the march of contemporary history was watched with keener curiosity, or when more general interest was taken in the conflicting movement and varied progress of the world and its inhabitants. For these reasons it has seemed to the publishers of the present work that a volume which forms a record of the past year, under all its phases, can hardly fail to be acceptable to the general body of readers. In the "History of the Year" an attempt has been made to summarise the results of the twelve months preceding its publication, and to note the progress made in the various departments of human activity. Domestic

and Foreign Politics, the History of Foreign States and of the Colonies and Dependencies of Great Britain, Financial and Commercial Matters, Literature, Art, and Music, Scientific Progress and Discovery, Ecclesiastical and Religious Affairs, Athletic Sports, and Fashions, will be found treated in its pages. The volume will contain a short account of those distinguished men and women whose work in the world has ended during the period it deals with; and in the Appendix will be found much useful information, and a set of Statistical Tables, which have been compiled expressly for this publication, and many of which are not generally accessible elsewhere. The various subjects have been entrusted to the hands of writers specially qualified to deal with them, and the aim has been in every case to write a brief, but interesting, and, it is hoped, thoroughly trustworthy, historical sketch, rather than a mere chronological abstract or outline of events. The publishers therefore feel some confidence in expressing their belief that the work will not only prove useful and interesting at the moment, but also that its volumes, as they accumulate year by year, will be found to embody a complete and valuable History of our Time.

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# THE HISTORY OF THE YEAR.

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## GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

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### CHAPTER I.

[OCTOBER, NOVEMBER, DECEMBER.]

IN the annals of the year, of which this volume is intended to form the record, so large a space is occupied by the affairs of Ireland, that some reference to the parliamentary Session of 1881, so momentous in the history of that country, becomes a matter of necessity, although it does not properly fall within the limits of our subject. The speech from the Throne at the opening of parliament in that year predicted that the labours of the Session would be more than usually arduous. It stated but too truly, that the social condition of Ireland had attained an alarming character. To cope with this unhappy state of things, to convert strife into peace, to substitute content and happiness for discontent and misery, was the difficult task to which Mr. Gladstone's government had to address itself. The buoyant hopes of long-delayed social, commercial, and legal reforms entertained by the Liberal party when, in 1880, they returned with a majority to the House of Commons, were not destined to be realised. The Land Law (Ireland) Act challenged almost the whole of their attention. The "additional powers necessary to secure protection for life and property, and personal liberty of action," for which the Government asked on the first day of the Session of 1881, were granted only after the fierce parliamentary struggles which marked the passage of the Protection Bill and Arms Bill. Coercion being thus determined upon, the Irish Land Bill was introduced on the 7th of April, and made law late in the following August. The opposition which the Coercion Acts aroused in Ireland increased the

grave difficulties of the situation, and permitted but faint hope of the Land Act receiving that fair play which was necessary for its complete success.

Under these circumstances, Parliament was prorogued on the 27th of August. The condition of Ireland, in the admitted gloom of the outlook, continued to be the most absorbing of political and social questions in the British Islands. All eyes were directed to the movements of the Land League members, upon whose attitude a fair trial of the important measure intended for the pacification of Ireland was felt in a great measure to depend. In Ulster the Land Act was favourably received, but in other provinces it met with passive resistance or avowed hostility. Under such auspices was it that the Government set to work to administer the measure. A special staff of sub-commissioners was appointed, and arrangements were made for holding the first Court on the 20th of October. The executive of the Land League were equally busy in preparing test cases, and collecting data. In a little while they had provided a list of 400 cases to be brought before the Land Commissioners. On Sunday, the 2nd of October, Mr. Parnell and several of his parliamentary followers attended an enthusiastic meeting at Cork, and Father Sheehy, who had not long been released from prison, where he had been confined as a "suspect," was rapturously applauded when he declared that if, before the succeeding month, every man in Kilmainham, incarcerated under the Coercion Act, were not released, not one farthing of rent would be paid in the County of Limerick. On the following Wednesday, Mr. Parnell addressed 10,000 people at Dungarvan, and resolutions were passed approving of all that the Land League had done. On the same day Mr. T. P. O'Connor, M.P., Mr. Redmond, M.P., and other Land Leaguers sailed for New York to enlist support.

The course of events, and the growing spirit of defiance to the Government in Ireland, created a very painful impression in England, and the excitement became intense when, on Thursday, the 13th of October, it was known that Mr. Parnell had been arrested, for inciting tenants not to discharge their just obligations and to refrain from applying to the Land Commissioners to have a fair rent fixed. This was not altogether unexpected, as Mr. Gladstone, during the previous week, had spoken at Leeds in the strongest terms of the policy of the Land League, and had referred to Mr. Parnell and his followers as preaching a gospel of plunder. Other members of Parliament and persons connected with the Land League were also arrested. Amongst these were Mr. Sexton, M.P., Mr. J. P. Quin, Secretary of the League,

Mr. O'Kelly, M.P., Mr. Dillon, M.P., and Mr. O'Brien, editor of the League newspaper, who were taken to Kilmainham Gaol, from which Mr. Dillon had been released only some few weeks previously in consequence of ill health. Rioting in many parts of Ireland followed the arrest of the leaders of the Land League. Meetings were held to denounce the Government, and to express sympathy with the prisoners. In some towns business was suspended, and in Dublin, for three consecutive nights, there were riots, and collisions between the police and the people. There were also disturbances in Limerick, and extraordinary precautions were taken by the military and police in consequence. At a weekly meeting of the Land League, held about this time, an address to the Irish people, known later on as the No-Rent Manifesto, was issued. It bore the signatures of Charles S. Parnell, President, Kilmainham Gaol; A. J. Kettle, Hon. Sec., Kilmainham Gaol; Michael Davitt, Hon. Sec., Portland Prison; Thomas Brennan, Hon. Sec., Kilmainham Gaol; John Dillon, Head Organiser, Kilmainham Gaol; Thomas Sexton, Head Organiser, Kilmainham Gaol; Patrick Egan, Treasurer, Paris. Copies of this document were posted throughout Ireland by order of the Land League executive. A letter was almost immediately published from Archbishop Croke, repudiating the No-Rent Manifesto, and saying that he had read it with absolute dismay. This prelate's opinions were subsequently modified, but most of the Catholic bishops advocated obedience to the law, and adherence to the principles of the Land Act. Renewed precautions against further disturbances were taken. Watchfulness was enjoined at every military station, and additional regiments were either sent from England, or ordered to hold themselves in readiness to proceed to Ireland on the shortest notice.

The Irish national papers commented in the strongest terms upon the arrest of the members of Parliament. Tenants here and there refused to pay rent until their representatives had been released, and meetings, great and small, were held throughout the country. As further arrests were summarily made, Limerick and other places became the scene of alarming riots, and it was computed that in the town of Naas alone there were quartered 2,000 military and police. Following the imprisonment of Mr. Parnell came his removal by the Lord Chancellor from the Commission of the Peace for County Wicklow. The Government, in its determination to protect the tenants willing to pay their rents, next proceeded to deal with the League itself. On the 20th of October, Mr. Forster, the Chief Secretary, issued a proclamation in Dublin declaring that the Irish National Land

League was an illegal association, and giving warning that all meetings and assemblies held to carry out or promote its decisions or principles would, therefore, if necessary, be dispersed by force. The proclamation went on to say, that all the powers and resources of the Government would be employed to protect the Queen's subjects in Ireland in the free exercise of their lawful rights, and the peaceful pursuit of their callings and occupations; as well as to save the process of the law and the execution of the Queen's writs from hindrance or obstruction. As a consequence of this proclamation there were now fresh arrests, Mr. Dorris, the last remaining Land League official, being apprehended in the chief offices in Sackville Street, and sent to Dundalk prison. Almost simultaneously with the Chief Secretary's suppression of the League appeared an announcement in the *Gazette* that the outrages committed in the country during the month of October amounted to 490.

A scene of extreme disorder characterised a meeting of the Corporation of Dublin when it was proposed to confer the freedom of the City upon Mr. Parnell and Mr. Dillon. The Lord Mayor had declined to convene the meeting, but the question was discussed at one summoned by requisition. The freedom was proposed by Mr. Gray, M.P., who insisted that the party led by Mr. Parnell represented the Irish nation, and that the honourable gentleman's arrest was the result of personal spite and wounded vanity on the part of Mr. Gladstone. At the same time, Mr. Gray said he did not think the "No-Rent" cry was justifiable under the present circumstances, nor that a separation from England was possible. The rejection of the proposal was moved by Mr. Brooks, M.P., whose speech was made amidst the most discordant cries and uproar. The Lord Mayor, in putting the motion, said that the proposal was condemnatory of the Government, and in defiance of the constituted authority. Twenty-three votes were offered on each side, and the Lord Mayor at once gave his casting vote against the motion. This incident created considerable comment throughout the United Kingdom; and the Lord Mayor, on his next appearance in public, to open the Dublin South City Market, was loudly hissed by a portion of the spectators, and as loudly cheered by the commercial men and other respectable citizens of every shade of political opinion who were present.

As a corollary to the proclamation against the Land League, the offices of that body in Dublin were closed, whereupon a Ladies' Land League, under the presidency of Mr. Parnell's sister, convened a meeting, and issued an address to the people.

Public meetings, which continued to be held throughout Ireland, became more orderly after the immediate excitement consequent upon the arrests had died away; but the suppression of the League, and the arrest of its leaders were continually condemned as acts of tyranny. The leading dignitaries of the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland continued to declare against the No-Rent manifesto. One priest was arrested, and another was suspended by his bishop for avowed connection with the Land League. A Pastoral condemning the No-Rent policy and the Boycotting system was written by Archbishop McCabe, and read in the chapels of the Dublin diocese. The Land Court, meanwhile, had been engaged in disposing of preliminary applications under the Land Act, and even in the early part of November there were as many as ten thousand applications before it waiting to be dealt with, chiefly for reduction of rent. Mr. Sexton, M.P., was released from Kilmainham Gaol on a certificate of ill-health on the 1st of November.

Every week, and almost every day, outrages were reported from different parts of Ireland. Many of the accounts published in the English papers were afterwards proved to be exaggerated; but the crimes as to which there was no possible doubt but too plainly showed the distressing condition of the country. A few examples will suffice. General Meares, driving home with a lady and gentleman, was fired at by two men lurking in a ditch. Twenty disguised men, armed with revolvers, fired through the windows and broke open the door of a County Cork farmer, maltreated all the inmates, and finally dragged the farmer into a field and battered him about the head with the butt-end of a gun because he declined to swear not to eject a sub-tenant. On the same night, in County Kerry, five disguised and armed men entered the house of a farmer, forced him to his knees, and on his admitting that he had paid his rent, fired at him and otherwise maltreated him. Armed attacks, incendiary fires, and the houghing of cattle, were amongst the most common methods of maltreatment to which people who wished to pay, or who had paid, their rent, were subjected. A bailiff was shot, a process-server was found drowned, and agents were fired at; while the most significant fact in connection with these offences against person and property was that the criminals escaped undetected, frequently through the terror which prompted the injured persons to decline to recognise or denounce their assailants.

In the midst of this anarchy the Land Commission proceeded with its labours, reducing rents where necessary, and everywhere gaining the respect of the lovers of order by the manner in which

it performed its complicated and thankless duties. Towards the end of November the Lord-Lieutenant and Lady Cowper paid a visit to the North of Ireland, and received an unusually enthusiastic reception from the loyal people of Ulster. On the 29th of November Michael Boyton, the youngest and earliest arrested of the Land League prisoners, was released on account of ill-health.

A striking illustration of the influences at work, and opinions entertained, amongst the Irish peasantry at this period, was afforded by a letter published in the *Freeman* newspaper by Canon Dennehy, who had objected to the formation of a "Children's Land League" in the parish of Kanturk. As parish priest, this gentleman had denounced the association from the altar. The men in the congregation resented the rebuke by noisily rising from their seats, and tramping out of church. In a letter to the newspaper, vindicating his action, the Rev. Canon explained that he could not consider himself justified before God in allowing the little ones of his parish to be instructed in the words of such doggerel as the following, which was being circulated amongst them :—

A is the army that covers the ground,  
 B is the buckshot we're getting all round;  
 C is the crowbar of cruellest fame,  
 D is our Davitt, a right glorious name;  
 E is the English who've robbed us of bread,  
 F is the famine they've left us instead.  
 G is for Gladstone, whose life is a lie;  
 H is the harvest we'll hold or we'll die;  
 I is the inspector, who when drunk is bold;  
 J is the jarvey, who'll not drive him for gold;  
 K is Kilmainham, where our true men abide;  
 L is the Land League, our hope and our pride;  
 M is the magistrate, who makes black of white;  
 N is No Rent, which will make our wrongs right;  
 O is Old Ireland, that yet shall be freed;  
 P is the peelers, who've sold her for greed;  
 Q is the Queen, whose use is not known;  
 R is the rifles, who keep up her throne;  
 S is the sheriff, with woe in his train;  
 T is the toil that others may gain;  
 U is the Union that works bitter harm;  
 V is the villain that grabs up a farm;  
 W is the warrant for death or for chains;  
 X is the *Express*, all lies and no brains;  
 Y is "Young Ireland," spreading the light;  
 Z is the zeal that will win the great fight.

According to the official returns, there had been 520 agrarian outrages in Ireland during the one month of November;

but in the corresponding month of 1880, before the Coercion Acts were passed, the number had been 561. About the same time a special supplement of the *Dublin Gazette* showed that there were over 350 individuals confined in the Irish gaols as suspects under the Coercion Act. An association was formed under the name of the Political Prisoners' Aid Society, which, it was announced, was intended to supply the place of the suppressed National Land League. At the winter assizes the judges in their charges to the grand juries drew a gloomy picture of the state of the country. Mr. Justice Fitzgerald, at Cork, declared that he had nothing to add to or take from his description of the prevailing anarchy twelve months previously, and that in Munster, at least, the situation evinced increased lawlessness. The large proportion of crimes of which the police had been unable to trace the authors was much commented upon; and it began to be suggested, even in organs that were not unfavourable to the Government, that the Land Act, from which so much had been hoped, had so far produced but little effect in satisfying the discontented masses, at least in the majority of the southern counties of Ireland.

The direful effects of this systematic and unabated lawlessness were felt in a variety of ways. Lord Kenmare discharged his labourers and gamekeepers, and signified his intention of leaving the country. The Kildare Hunt resolved to abandon its sport, a meeting of farmers having determined only to allow hunting to continue on condition that the members of the club would sign a petition asking for the release of the suspects. In other hunting districts hounds were poisoned, or stopped and stoned by crowds of people. The proposed exhibition of Irish manufactures in Dublin, for which prompt promises of Governmental and financial support had been given, and upon which great hopes were centred, was in danger for a while of being altogether extinguished. Amongst other recommendations it had been proposed that the Queen, or one of the Royal Princes, should be invited to open the exhibition, but at a meeting of the executive committee, the recommendation was strongly opposed by Mr. Dawson, M.P.; the Lord Mayor elect; Mr. Daly, M.P.; Mr. Sullivan, M.P.; and Mr. Gray, M.P. Not a little ill-feeling was engendered in England by this movement. Many liberal subscriptions were withdrawn, and the whole scheme of the exhibition was finally altered. On the 15th December the Land League newspaper, the *United Ireland*, was suppressed, and the sub-editor, who had been recently appointed, and the clerk, who had been formerly employed in the Land League offices, were arrested, and incarcerated in Kilmainham prison. The grounds upon

which the paper was seized were that it had contained an article which amounted to a No-Rent Manifesto, that part of it directly incited to murder, and that it was generally a seditious publication.

In order to enlarge their means of detecting crime and protecting the lives and property of threatened persons, the Irish Executive authorised the Inspector-General and the constabulary to temporarily employ 1,000 men of the first-class army reserve, and army, marine, and police pensioners. It was hoped by these means to organise an effective system of patrol in all the disturbed districts, and it was arranged that half the cost of this extra force should be borne by the Government, and half by the districts in which they were employed. The deep-rooted disloyalty of the disaffected was not modified by the publication of a circular, said to have been issued to the constabulary, urging that every effort should be made by constables in charge of stations to secure some person who would, on consideration of a substantial private reward, give secret information to the authorities of outrages about to be committed. During the autumn, meetings were held in England, and movements instituted in aid of Irish landowners suffering from the inevitable results of the Land League agitation. In London, Lord Mayor Ellis announced his willingness to receive subscriptions for the relief of ladies in distress on account of non-payment of rents. In the second week of December a meeting was held at the Mansion House, called by the Lord Mayor, for concerting measures to aid in the defence of property in Ireland. His Lordship wrote to the *Times*, expressing the hope that the committee about to be formed would be free from all political bias, and would raise such a fund as would give effectual assistance to the loyal people of Ireland in the emergency in which they were placed. The Duke of Westminster subscribed £500, the Duke of Abercorn promised that the fund should be well applied, and the initial resolution appointing the committee was proposed by the Duke of Sutherland. The Lord Mayor, however, was severely attacked in many of the newspapers for originating the movement in what was alleged to be a spirit hostile to the Government. A long correspondence between the Premier and the Lord Mayor was incidentally published. From this it appeared that the Lord Mayor had from the first been in communication with the Premier, who had, in the name of the Government, expressed the opinion that the association was a justifiable one, but that, under the circumstances, official advice would be more likely to do harm than good. The controversy gradually cooled, but there



could be no doubt that the total of the fund ultimately raised was considerably lessened thereby.

A new alarm was raised on the 18th December by a seizure of arms, ammunition, and dynamite in a house in Brabazon Street, Dublin. In the previous week revolvers and Fenian correspondence had been discovered near Bradford, in Yorkshire, and a man named Tobin, who was said to be in correspondence with the "Irish Republican Brotherhood," was committed for trial by the Bradford magistrates. The seizure in Dublin was, however, a much more serious matter. In two houses there were found concealed, twenty-four breech-loading rifles, four revolvers, two single-barrelled pistols, twenty-two bayonets, one sword, one small pike, one gun-screw, twelve hand-grenades, 190 rifle cartridges, one canister of shot, 2,500 revolver cartridges, 1,000 blank cartridges, six powder-flasks, twenty-eight pounds of loose powder, a quantity of bullets, and a bundle of documents having reference to the Fenian conspiracy of 1867. These events increased the oft-suggested suspicion that Irish Americans, connected with one of the many sections of the Fenian organisation, were largely concerned in the brutal acts of violence perpetrated in the name of the Land League.

The attention of the authorities in Dublin was in process of time, perforce, directed to the operations of the Ladies' Land League. So far their meetings had not been interfered with by the police, but the period arrived when action had to be taken. On the 19th of December the Ladies' Land League was officially denounced by the issue of a circular from the Inspector-General of Constabulary, announcing that the Lord-Lieutenant's proclamation of October 20th against the Land League applied to similar proceedings on the part of women; and that women taking part in meetings for Land League purposes, and persons lending their premises for such meetings, would be liable to arrest and prosecution. In spite of this, however, the Ladies' League held their usual Dublin meeting next day without police interference, but the messenger bearing letters and other documents connected with the society was taken into custody. Miss Hannah Reynolds, who had been one of the most prominent of the lady agitators, was charged at Castletownbere with inciting the tenants not to pay rent. Refusing to give bail to keep the peace for six months, she was, on Christmas Eve, imprisoned in Cork city gaol. Many of the ordinary prison rules were relaxed in her behalf, and she subsequently spoke in high terms of the treatment she received while incarcerated. The Ladies' League meanwhile issued a circular to the

women of Ireland exhorting them to have courage and to maintain a cool and defiant front. The circular also requested that meetings of the Ladies' Land League should be held simultaneously in every part of Ireland on the first day of the new year.

An important change in the composition of the Home Rule party in Parliament occurred towards the close of the year, by the withdrawal of Mr. Shaw, M.P. In his letter to the secretary explaining his reasons for withdrawing from the organisation, he expressed the belief that it was the opinion of an immense number of Irish people that the Act of the previous session had settled the land question, and that as soon as there was a cessation of the existing unnatural excitement steps would be taken under the provisions of the measure to generally extend the class of tenant-owners. He also observed that in England the state of feeling was not at present sufficiently calm and judicial for the consideration of such a difficult subject as Home Rule.

In concluding the story of Irish troubles for the year 1881, it should be mentioned that the winter assizes in the west produced one result which was everywhere considered satisfactory by the upholders of law and order. It had been feared that the difficulty hitherto encountered in inducing juries to fairly consider the cases brought before them would have been again met with. But the result was otherwise. In several instances of prosecutions for agrarian crime, the accused men were actually convicted, and some persons charged with Boycotting and such-like illegal acts pleaded guilty. The trials disclosed, as might have been expected, a shocking state of things throughout the country, but the Crown succeeded in obtaining convictions which would previously have been impossible.

The agitating questions involved in such a condition of things in Ireland, as that described in the foregoing pages, were naturally reflected in the political speeches which were delivered in England and Scotland during the recess. The meetings held in most of the large centres of population were unusually numerous and spirited, and Ministers and ex-ministers frequently attended gatherings in different parts of the country. First on the catalogue should be mentioned what was generally called Mr. Gladstone's Leeds Campaign. This series of demonstrations, which was promoted by a body of politicians known as the Liberal Four Hundred of Leeds, was intended to support the Prime Minister and his government under the attacks which had been made by the Opposition upon its Irish and foreign policy. On the 6th of

October, accordingly, the Prime Minister, accompanied by Mrs. and Miss Gladstone and Mr. Herbert Gladstone, one of the members for the borough, arrived at Leeds, where, during their stay, they were the guests of Mr. Kitson. Although no formal reception had been arranged, the arrival was an occasion of great enthusiasm. At all stations from Broughton Hall, near Hawarden, the special train was greeted with cheering from crowded platforms, and at the Cheshire and Lancashire stations the crowds were immense. At Huddersfield it was estimated that 6,000 people had collected to see the train pass. The real demonstration, however, commenced on the following day, when the decorated streets of Leeds were thronged with hundreds of thousands of persons, many of whom had come in by excursion trains to do honour to the occasion. The Premier and his friends drove slowly in open carriages from Spring Bank, beyond Wodehouse Moor, to the Town Hall, where, led by the great organ, the people, who thronged every part, hailed the arrival of the Premier by singing "Rule Britannia" and "Auld Lang Syne." The Corporation, representing all shades of political opinion, presented an address. Then followed the delivery of addresses from the various Liberal associations of the district. In a speech of an hour and forty minutes' duration Mr. Gladstone replied to these addresses, dwelling upon the general position of his party, and replying to the speeches made since the prorogation of Parliament by Opposition statesmen. In the evening there was a great banquet, at which the Premier was received with indescribable enthusiasm. The right honourable gentleman spoke almost entirely upon the affairs of Ireland, expressing opinions respecting Mr. Parnell and his colleagues which formed the subject of most bitter attacks in the speeches delivered by the Land League members during the remainder of the recess. He warned the party of disorder that the people of Ireland should not be deprived of the benefits of the Land Act by force or threats. An army of 3,000 torch-bearers, each ward having sent elected representatives, lined the route on Mr. Gladstone's return, and falling in behind his carriage, headed by a band of music, escorted him home. On the following day, the enthusiasm and the crowds still continuing, Mr. Gladstone drove into Leeds and delivered three speeches. The first was to the Chamber of Commerce, the subject being, broadly, Free Trade, as against the "Fair Trade" movement which had sprung up in England during the previous year. The second speech was delivered at a luncheon given by the Liberal Club, and in response to the toast of his health, proposed by Sir Edward Baines. The most remarkable meeting

of all, however, was the third, held in the Clothyard. Twenty-five thousand tickets had been issued for this monster assembly, and many more than that number of persons actually appeared within or without the building. Special political songs were sung on the occasion, and the Premier entered the enclosure to a thundering display of Kentish fire, stamping of feet and prolonged hurrahs. After speeches by Sir Andrew Fairbairn, M.P., Mr. Barran, M.P., and Mr. Herbert Gladstone, M.P., a resolution of confidence in the Government was carried, and then a motion of welcome to Mr. Gladstone. The right honourable gentleman again referred to the mournful necessity of coercion in Ireland, but the bulk of his speech was occupied in a discussion of the Treaty of Berlin, the affairs of Eastern Europe, the Afghan question, Egypt, Turkey, and the Cape. These Leeds demonstrations were universally acknowledged to be the most notable ever held in a district where large political demonstrations are the rule rather than the exception.

Mr. Gladstone's next appearance in public was during the following week (October 13), when the Corporation of the City of London presented him with an address of "cordial respect and high admiration of his intellectual and moral qualities," and of his lengthened and self-sacrificing services to his country. Guildhall was packed with a concourse of London's leading citizens, and many other members of the ministry were present to share in the magnificent reception accorded to their chief as he entered from the library with the Lord Mayor, the Lady Mayoress and Mrs. Gladstone. The address was presented in a gold box, and it concluded by remarking that in token of the estimation in which Mr. Gladstone was justly held, the Mayor, Aldermen and Commons of the City of London, in Common Council assembled, respectfully requested that he would sit for a marble bust to be placed in the Guildhall among some of his most illustrious predecessors, as a permanent memorial of admiration and regard. The Prime Minister, in the early portion of his reply, spoke of the claims of law, public order, and loyalty to the throne and institutions of the country. Holding in his hand a telegram which he had just received, he then announced the recent arrest of Mr. Parnell. At this statement the whole assembly, which included public men of the most opposite political opinions, rose to their feet and cheered loud and long. When the applause had died away the Premier appealed to all political parties and their leaders to support the supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. Before the meeting separated, the Town Clerk announced that the Commission working the old marble quarries in the island of Paros had offered, through the

Greek Chargé d'Affaires, as their contribution to the statue, a block of marble in token of gratitude to England from the Greeks.

Spending a few days subsequently with the Earl of Derby, Mr. Gladstone, on the 27th October, received a deputation from the Liverpool Liberals, who presented him with an address. Here again the right honourable gentleman defended the policy of the Government in respect to Greece, Afghanistan, and South Africa, and the situation in Ireland, replying at length to the Right Hon. James Lowther, M.P., who, in a provincial speech, had suggested that an army should have been sent to support the Irish landlords before the passing of the Land Act. The suggestion, Mr. Gladstone said, was a calumny on the Irish people, the belief of the Government being that the forces they were at issue with were nothing but an organised attempt to over-ride the free will and judgment of the nation. He believed that the people, who had formerly been put under the most violent restraint to withhold their rents, were now coming forward in large numbers to pay them; and he added, referring to the Land League leaders, "It is idle to talk either of law or order, or liberty, or religion, or of civilisation, if these gentlemen are to carry through the reckless and chaotic schemes that they have devised. Rapine is the first object. Rapine is not the only object. It is perfectly true that they wish to march through rapine to disintegration and dismemberment of the Empire, and I am sorry to say even to the placing of different parts of the Empire in direct hostility one with the other. That is the issue in which we are engaged."

The Leaders of the Opposition also, in the months of October and November, carried out a series of successful campaigns, in different parts of the country, speaking to large and enthusiastic gatherings. On the 3rd October Sir Stafford Northcote, at a Conservative demonstration in Hull, charged the Government with bringing humiliation on the country in relation to the Transvaal, and with compromising British interests in their dealings with Egypt. With respect to Ireland the right honourable baronet insisted that the feeble attitude of the Ministers towards the Land League had directly encouraged that association successfully to defy the Queen's Government. At Beverley, on the following day, Sir Stafford Northcote advocated the removal of undue burdens on land. The most important of the Opposition meetings were held in connection with the annual conference of Conservative associations at Newcastle-on-Tyne, which commenced on the 11th October. Here the Marquis of Salisbury and Sir Stafford Northcote spoke at a

banquet, and on the following day at a mass meeting, severely criticising the policy of the Government with respect to Irish, foreign, and colonial affairs. On the 13th October Sir Stafford Northcote addressed a meeting at Edinburgh. Later in the recess Sir Hardinge Giffard at Launceston, Lord George Hamilton at Shrewsbury, Lord Randolph Churchill at Hull, and Sir John Holker at Preston, addressed great audiences of Conservatives; while Mr. Chamberlain at Liverpool, Sir William Harcourt at Glasgow, Mr. Shaw Lefevre at Reading, the Postmaster-General at Hackney, and Lord Hartington at Blackburn, delivered political addresses in defence of the Government. These political meetings on both sides, as a rule, though animated, were not unruly, the exceptions being a meeting of the Marylebone electors to hear addresses from Sir Thomas Chambers and Mr. Daniel Grant, the members for the borough; a meeting at Macclesfield; and another at Newcastle. These were held during the latter part of the month of November. At the Marylebone meeting a strong party of sympathisers with the Irish Land League created an uproar; at Macclesfield the Free Traders and Fair Traders, who had assembled to hear one of the Conservative candidates at the last election, came to blows, and broke up in disorder; and in the town hall at Newcastle, Mr. Ashton Dilke tried in vain to address his constituents, owing to the organised opposition of a posse of Irish labourers.

At the annual Ministerial banquet at Guildhall on Nov. 9, the Ministers present were Mr. Gladstone, Lord Granville, Lord Hartington, Mr. Forster, and Mr. Mundella. Lord Granville, who responded to the toast of the House of Lords, in speaking upon foreign affairs, assured his hearers that although there were questions which required the most careful and anxious observation, none were in a critical state. With respect to Egypt he said that the Government were watching the efforts now being made by Cherif Pacha to give contentment to the country, and that the French and English Governments were cordially co-operating. Although, he added, difficulties had arisen and might arise again, there was no reason to give way to pessimist alarms as to being able to deal with these difficulties in the future.

The question of Land Law Reform became one of the most prominent of the secondary matters discussed before the constituencies during the autumn. An address on the subject, which attracted a large amount of attention, was delivered by Mr. Caird before the Statistical Society in London. At a meeting at Yeovil on the 4th November, Lord Hartington spoke at length upon this question, asking the tenant-farmers of the

country to disabuse their minds of the idea that the Liberal leaders were neglectful of their interests. He declined to pronounce the Agricultural Holdings Act a failure, believing that in consequence of it a great many voluntary agreements had been entered into between landlords and tenants where no agreements existed before; and he confessed that, important as some legislative changes no doubt were, for the future of agriculture at home, it was neither true nor honest to hold out to the suffering farmer at that moment the hope that anything which Parliament or legislation might do would effect a sudden change in his favour. The bad times from which the country was suffering could, he said, only be met, as they had always been, by the co-operation of landlords, tenants, farmers, and labourers. The Farmers' Alliance, which had held frequent meetings to discuss schemes of Land Law Reform, passed a resolution regretting the tone of Lord Hartington's remarks with regard to the question of tenant right, and placed on record its conviction that no measure introduced into Parliament for securing tenant right would be satisfactory to the farmers or to the public unless it secured to the tenants the full value of all the improvements which added to the letting value of the farm, and unless it likewise provided that the rent should not be raised upon those improvements. While the necessity for an alteration of the Land Laws was being debated in England, the need of a similar measure for Scotland was insisted upon, and at a mass meeting of the farmers of the counties of Aberdeen, Banff and Kincardine on December 1st, it was declared that under existing circumstances it was impossible for farmers to carry on their business; by way of remedy it was suggested that landlords should be asked to make reasonable concessions; that the law of entail and primogeniture should be abolished; that the burdens on land should be lightened; that compensation for improvements should be secured to the tenant; that fair security of tenure should be guaranteed; that any bill passed should apply to existing leases, and that a Farmers' Alliance should be formed. At various meetings in England support was given to a bill drawn up by the Farmers' Alliance.

Lord Ebrington was returned member for Tiverton on 14th October, by a majority of 252 over Mr. Loosemore, the Conservative candidate. On Saturday, the 19th November, Mr. Salt, Conservative candidate, was returned for Stafford in the place of Mr. Macdonald deceased. The other candidate was Mr. George Howell, a labour representative, who received the support of the Irish electors in spite of a resolution to the contrary

passed by the National Land League of Great Britain. At one of Mr. Howell's meetings, Mr. Coates, M.P., stated that Mr. Gladstone had expressed a hope that Mr. Howell would be returned, not only because he was a thoroughly consistent Liberal, but because he was a direct representative of labour. The numbers, however, at the poll, were: Salt, 1,482; Howell, 1,185. A vacancy being created in the Carmarthen boroughs by the acceptance of the judgeship of the Glamorganshire County Court by Mr. B. T. Williams, Q.C., Mr. John Jones Jenkins, ex-mayor of Swansea, was selected by the local Liberals as their candidate, and was ultimately elected.

The people of Rochdale publicly celebrated the seventieth birthday of Mr. John Bright on the 16th November. In the afternoon the workpeople of the carpet manufactory with which Mr. Bright's family have long been connected presented him with an address at the One Ash Mills, an open air demonstration which had been projected being prevented by violent rain. The chairman of the presentation committee had been an employé at the mill since 1823, and the post of honour was given to him as the oldest "hand." Mr. Bright, in reply to the address, referred to their long acquaintance, and added, "I have as much reason to respect him, as he has to respect me." The address was signed by specially selected representatives of the principal departments of the factory, and, in his speech, Mr. Bright referred to the time, forty or fifty years ago, when he knew every face in the works, and paid all the wages. The right honourable gentleman took the opportunity of reviewing the effect wrought upon the working classes during his lifetime by free trade, freedom of the press, household suffrage, and national education. A deputation from the Liberal Association of Birmingham also presented an address, reminding him with pride of his political connection of a quarter of a century with the constituency, and the close relations which had grown up between them. The birthday meeting *par excellence* was, however, held at night in the Town Hall, when an address was presented from the inhabitants of Rochdale at large. In a speech of an hour and twenty minutes Mr. Bright gave a most interesting review of Lancashire political history, referring to the great Anti-Corn Law struggles in which Mr. Cobden and himself had taken so prominent a part, and claiming that the principles of justice, freedom and peace must ever in the long run triumph. A great torchlight procession escorted Mr. Bright and his friends home, the weather having somewhat moderated, and on Cronkeyshaw Common there were not only fireworks, but a bonfire with fifteen tons of Lancashire coal as a foundation.



It had been persistently rumoured during the earlier part of the recess that the Prime Minister was about to go to the Upper House. In November, however, Mr. Gladstone's Secretary wrote to a gentleman, who had asked whether it was true that the Premier was about to take a seat in the House of Lords with the title of the Earl of Liverpool, saying that there was no truth in the statement.

The Speaker of the House of Commons, Sir H. B. W. Brand, in unveiling a memorial to Thomas Clarkson, in his native town of Wisbech, reminded his hearers that it took a generation first of all to emancipate the slaves, and another generation to suppress the slave trade. As an additional proof that great measures took a long time in maturing, he further mentioned that a generation was occupied in carrying the Reform Bill of 1832, and another generation in securing Free Trade. The moral he drew was that measures affecting local government, sanitary laws, the amendment of the land laws, and the pollution of air and water in large towns, made him feel dismayed at the possibility of a generation passing away before they were accomplished.

The Queen returned from Balmoral to Windsor Castle on the 23rd of November. Her Majesty, with the Princesses Louise and Beatrice, attended a ball given by the Prince and Princess of Wales to the servants and tenants on the royal estates, and at Abergeldie witnessed, for the first time for many years, a theatrical representation, Mr. Bruce's provincial company playing "The Colonel."

The improvements which have so rapidly raised Folkestone to the first rank of South-coast watering-places were especially signalised on the 12th October by the visit of the Prince of Wales, who laid the first concrete block of the breakwater which is intended to form the long-required deep-sea harbour for the port.

The Welsh seaport town of Swansea was also visited by the Prince of Wales, who was accompanied by the Princess, on the 18th October, the occasion being the opening of a new dock. A gale which had blown across South Wales with hurricane force had seriously interfered with the elaborate decorations of the town; but the first public visit of the Prince and Princess to the Principality from which they take their title created an extraordinary amount of interest. Their Royal Highnesses were the guests of Mr. Hussey Vivian, M.P., at Singleton Abbey, and were presented at the boundary of the borough with an address, and subsequently entertained at a public luncheon. In

reply to the toast of his health, His Royal Highness referred to a letter which he had recently read in an evening paper from "an old friend" of his, Mr. Goldwin Smith, who, in commenting upon modern royalty, had not given the members of the royal family the credit of wishing to promote great and useful movements in the country. His Royal Highness said he hoped that the present visit would show that such was not the case. Previous to the luncheon the Princess of Wales admitted the water into the new dock, and christened it by the name of the Prince of Wales. It was abundantly shown during the proceedings consequent upon this royal visit that Swansea had altogether recovered from its decline, there being at present five hundred and sixty collieries within a radius of forty miles of Swansea. The growing importance of the place as the metropolis of the copper industry rendered additional dock accommodation an absolute necessity.

Much interest was felt towards the latter end of October in the publication of a correspondence between the Princess of Wales and Lady Ilchester. During the summer an association had been formed amongst ladies of rank with the avowed object of rescuing the British woollen trade from its depression. Two hundred noble and fashionable patronesses gave their adhesion to an association for the encouragement of British woollen manufactures. It was headed by the Countess of Bective and Lady Ilchester, and amongst the adherents were the Duchess of Edinburgh, the Princess Christian and the Duchess of Teck. Lady Ilchester wrote to the Princess of Wales informing her that the movement aimed at pushing the demand and sale of English fabrics and manufactures, which had been thrown so much in the background by preference given to foreign stuffs. Her ladyship added that the association did not wish for promises from anyone to wear only English materials, but they thought that if Her Royal Highness would allow her name to appear it would do more towards inducing others to join in the movement than anything else could do, and would be the greatest possible help towards mitigating in some measure the distress prevailing in the manufacturing parts of England, and among the farmers. The Princess of Wales's private secretary, in answer to this communication, said that the question of the depression of the woollen trade had already been brought to the Princess's notice, and had been carefully inquired into. The letter then continued :—

"The main reason of the depreciated value of wool in its raw state is the enormous importation of colonial wools; and, as colonial sheep-farming has by no means reached its highest development yet, it is to be apprehended that this cause must

continue to act injuriously to the British wool-grower. It could be removed only by a prohibition of the free importation of wool, a measure to which the great majority of the nation would never consent.

“If the importation of the manufactured article has considerably increased during the last 20 years, it ought not to be overlooked that, side by side with the rapid growth of wealth and population, the quantity of woollen fabrics made in this country has also risen very largely. The check which has manifested itself during the last few years has been experienced in nearly all other branches of trade and industry. It ought to be remembered also, that a large proportion of the imported goods is actually the product of the raw material bought in the London market. That the foreigners, in spite of the disadvantage of greater cost of carriage, have thus been able to compete to some extent successfully with the home manufacturers, is by competent authorities stated to be owing to the cheapness of labour abroad, and to the former's enterprise in adapting their machinery more readily to the varying taste of the public. But the actual depression in the wool trade, as far as the manufacturers are concerned, is caused in a very slight degree only by foreign competition at home, and almost entirely by the obstacles raised against the export of British fabrics through the imposition of protective duties in other countries. In the United Kingdom the decrease in the use of home-made worsted manufactures affects in reality only one kind, that of the so-called ‘lustre-wool,’ while the consumption of the rougher woollen stuffs has of late been widely extended through all classes of the population.

“It is extremely doubtful, therefore, whether the association got up by Lady Bective and others could succeed beyond conferring an advantage on the growers and manufacturers of long-haired wool, to the detriment of the producers of other kinds of wool. But assuming for a moment that all the propositions put forward in the circulars of the association were well founded, and that its promoters were to achieve the desired success of raising the price of home-grown wool to its former height, it is evident that the cost of woollen fabrics would thereby be nearly doubled, to the inevitable injury of the many millions of people who use them. The whole question would then resolve itself into a conflict between consumers and producers. Although the efforts of the latter to protect their interests may be perfectly legitimate, it is impossible for the Princess of Wales, having regard to the public position occupied by Her Royal Highness, to take such a prominent part in a contest between different classes of the popu-

lation as would be assumed by her if Her Royal Highness were to allow her name to head the list of supporters of the association in question."

In the conclusion of the letter it was stated that Her Royal Highness and the young princesses had, in fact, been wearing home-made woollen dresses during the greater part of the past twelve months. Under all the circumstances, therefore, Her Royal Highness trusted that the leaders of the movement would not press her to become one of the patronesses.

On the 12th December, the Duke of Edinburgh, the Duke of Albany, and Prince Christian visited Manchester in aid of a movement for establishing a Royal College for the study of music in this country. At a meeting in the Free Trade Hall in the evening the Duke of Albany presided, and upon the platform, in addition to many members of Parliament, were the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of Manchester, and Mr. John Bright. The Duke of Albany delivered an address, in which he traced step by step the development of music in England, and explained that his object was to urge the necessity of establishing a national *conservatoire*, or college of music, which should offer the "same advantages to students which were afforded in general learning by the universities and colleges of the country, and in the fine arts by the Government Department at South Kensington." He gave credit to the Royal Academy of Music and national training schools for already working in the direction aimed at, but urged that the practical advancement of music would not be attained without some such institution as he advocated. The Duke of Edinburgh and Prince Christian spoke to the same effect, and said that they asked for sympathy and co-operation in advancing throughout the United Kingdom the cultivation of music by the agency of an institution which would enable those who had been endowed by providence with genius or talent, though not with wealth, to acquire an independence for themselves, and exercise a beneficial influence on their fellow-countrymen. During the following week the Prince of Wales, before leaving London to spend Christmas at Sandringham, presided over a meeting at Marlborough House in furtherance of the same object.

The Queen and Princess Beatrice left Windsor Castle on the 16th December for Osborne. During her stay at Windsor Her Majesty came to London to visit the ex-Empress Eugénie, who had received injuries from a fall, in her house at Hyde Park. Before the court left for Osborne, the Speaker of the House of Commons and Sir Henry Parkes, Premier of New South Wales, were invested with the Order of the Bath, and Dr. Kirke, British

Consul in Zanzibar, with the Order of St. Michael and St. George. Soon after the Queen's arrival at Osborne, Lord Justice Lindley was sworn in a member of the Privy Council.

Middlesborough, on the 7th of October, celebrated its jubilee. Half a century had elapsed since coal began to be shipped from that place. The port may be said to be of Quaker foundation, owing its development principally to Joseph Pease, of Darlington, Henry William Bolckow, and John Vaughan. As the little place grew, the valuable seams of ironstone in the adjacent hills, which had been long neglected, began to be worked. The first furnace was built thirty years ago, and the people of Middlesborough were able to boast at their jubilee celebration that there were now in the neighbourhood one hundred costly iron-smelting furnaces. The total production, which was 24,000 tons in 1851, and 600,000 tons in 1861, had risen in 1880 to 2,500,000 tons. The jubilee keepers could therefore congratulate themselves upon rising above the temporary depression which threatened them a few years ago, and on being able amidst returning prosperity to honour the names of the men who had made their little moorland village a great and prosperous manufacturing town.

The Social Science Congress was held this year in Dublin. It was opened on the 3rd October, and Lord O'Hagan, the President, delivered the opening address in the Exhibition Palace. His Lordship referred to the holding of the fourth congress in Dublin twenty years previously, and to the presence there of great men who were now no more—Lord Brougham, Sir John Shaw Lefevre, Chief Justice Whiteside, and Michel Chevalier, the great French economist. Lord O'Hagan reviewed the legal and social reforms effected in Ireland during the interval, and stated that the improvement in the educational institutions of the country had been enormous. Amongst the most notable of the addresses delivered during the week was one by Mr. Goldwin Smith, in the section of Economy and Trade, upon the "Social and Industrial Position of the People in England and in the United States and Canada." On the 4th October the Associated Chambers of Commerce held their autumn meeting at Plymouth.

The new Military Code was issued in the beginning of the month of October. The Regulation of the Forces Act and the Army Act, passed during the session, came into force in the United Kingdom on the 22nd September; in Malta, Gibraltar, the West Indies and British America a month later, and in India and the more distant colonies on the 27th February, 1882. Many useful alterations were incorporated in this new Army Act,

and on the 1st of January newly-formed rules of procedure for the conduct of military trials and the disposal of military offenders came into force.

A gale, the like of which had not been experienced for many years, swept over the country on the 13th and 14th October. Damage to property was universal, and there was scarcely a park in the south and south-western counties that did not show traces of the violence of the storm in the destruction of their finest trees. Many persons were killed or injured by falling trees or shattered buildings. The full force of the gale was felt in London, so that telegraphic communication was almost entirely stopped. The list of disasters at sea during this storm was declared by the *Shipping and Mercantile Gazette* to be the heaviest that had ever appeared in its columns. At Berwick and Eyemouth a large number of poor fishermen were drowned, and it was estimated that no less than 43,033 tons of produce were lost by wreckage. A fund, to which Her Majesty the Queen contributed £100, was opened in London for the relief of the sufferers on the east coast of Scotland, where the injuries to life and property had been especially severe. As time went on, numerous shipwrecks were reported, and these were largely increased by another violent gale, which devastated the coasts of Great Britain at a later date, and raged with great severity for four or five days.

The trial of Mabel Wilberforce, at the Central Criminal Court, for perjury, was a sensation of the hour. The case arose out of another, which was also a passing sensation in July. The prisoner in that month brought an action against Captain Philp for slander, the lady having been a companion or housekeeper to the defendant's father. The evidence and incidental cross-examination teemed with surprises, and while the tendency of the latter was to show that the lady was an impudent impostor, the evidence-in-chief represented her as a deeply injured woman. Towards the close of the case Miss Wilberforce's counsel announced that something had occurred which led him, the solicitor who had instructed him, and his junior counsel, to withdraw from the case. Mr. Justice Field, who had been trying the action for slander, said that day by day he had been hearing statements made and letters read, in which appeared wilful and gross fabrications made for the purpose of carrying out, he would not say a conspiracy, but a most infamous claim. A verdict for the defendant was given, and after the opinion expressed by the learned judge, no one was surprised when, on the 24th of October, Mabel Wilberforce was placed in the dock to answer a charge of perjury. The allegations were, that

she had falsely sworn that her name was Mabel Wilberforce, that she was born in the year 1854, that she had never lived in Manchester or Liverpool, that she had never lived with a man named Trenefide, and that a child whose portrait was shown during the trial was not hers. The jury took some time to consider their verdict, and were eventually locked up for nearly four hours. They then brought in a unanimous verdict of guilty, and recommended the prisoner to mercy. The judge, taking into consideration the fact that she had already been some time in prison, sentenced her to hard labour for nine months.

The suppression of the opium traffic was the object of two or three important meetings, the chief of which was held in the Mansion House (October 21), under the presidency of the Lord Mayor, who insisted that the British nation was treating China in a way that it would not dare to pursue with any European power, and that it was important, even from a commercial point of view, to establish, with an empire of three hundred millions of people relations that would remove feelings of enmity, and lead to the cultivation of mutually friendly sentiments. On the motion of the Archbishop of Canterbury it was resolved "That the opium traffic, as now carried on between India and China, is opposed alike to Christianity and international morality, and to the commercial interests of this country; that it is the duty of this country not only to put an end to the opium trade, but to withdraw all encouragement to the growth of the poppy in India except for strictly medicinal purposes, and to support the Chinese Government in its efforts to suppress the traffic; and that it is further the duty of this country to give such aid to the Government of India as may be found reasonable in order to lessen the inconvenience resulting to its finances from the adoption of the policy advocated in this resolution." In a second resolution, proposed by Cardinal Manning, the meeting expressed an opinion that the results of the sale of opium in British Burmah are a disgrace to our Government of India, and demand a most thorough and immediate remedy.

On Lord Mayor's Day, when Mr. Alderman Ellis was duly installed in the civic chair, an interesting feature marked the time-honoured "Show." In the midst of the procession there was borne aloft an American flag which had been sent from across the Atlantic for the purpose. The Stars and Stripes were welcomed with much enthusiasm by the thronging thousands who lined the route, and at its close special honours were paid to the "star-spangled banner" of the great daughter-land beyond the ocean.

The whaling vessels composing the Dundee fleet returned in the autumn with a cheering account of the season's operations. The nine vessels employed at the Greenland seal fishery had secured nearly 13,000 seals, and about 200 tuns of oil. Six ships at Newfoundland had caught 140,000 seals, yielding about 1,800 tuns of oil. The total value of the year's seal fishery was £96,000, showing an increase of £43,000 over the previous year's work. At the whale fisheries, steamers had been engaged bringing home, as the produce of forty-eight whales, 500 tuns of oil, and 24 tons of bone. The financial result of the fleet's expedition was £131,000, or a total increase over the previous year of £16,000.

The retirement of Lord O'Hagan from the Lord Chancellorship of Ireland in November caused the elevation of the Right Hon. Hugh Law, M.P., to the chief place on the Irish judicial bench, the appointment of Mr. Johnson, Q.C., M.P., as Attorney-General, and Mr. Porter, Q.C., as Solicitor General. The latter gentleman, after a sharp contest, was elected to represent Londonderry in Parliament. Lord O'Hagan was warmly complimented on his retirement from the Lord Chancellorship by the Irish bar. He was thanked by the Attorney-General in the name of his forensic brethren for his ability, zeal, and courtesy, and presented with an address by the Council of the Incorporated Law Society. On his retirement his lordship was appointed to the vacancy in the Knighthood of St. Patrick. Lord O'Hagan won his position at the Irish bar in the famous State trials of 1843, and entered the House of Commons as a law officer of the Crown in Lord Palmerston's second administration. In 1868 Mr. Gladstone nominated him Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and he was the first Roman Catholic who, since the reign of James II., was placed at the head of the Irish Judicature. The noble lord was raised to the peerage in 1870, and was made a second time Lord Chancellor when Mr. Gladstone resumed office in 1880.

The same month witnessed the withdrawal from his judicial functions of one of the most respected of the English judges. Upon the retirement from the bench of Sir George Bramwell, a complimentary banquet was given in the hall of the Inner Temple (Nov. 28) under the presidency of the Attorney-General. There were three hundred members of the bench and bar present. Mr. Justice Lindley was appointed to the vacant judgeship, and Sir George Bramwell was subsequently raised to the peerage under the title of Baron Bramwell.

In this year there was a noticeable revival of the time-honoured celebration of Guy Fawkes Day in various parts of the



country, and to some extent the processions were made to reflect the politics of the provincial masqueraders. Thus the Premier, Mr. Forster, Mr. Parnell, Mr. Biggar and Mr. Bradlaugh in different towns replaced the legitimate hero of "gunpowder, treason and plot." The most pretentious celebration was at Lewes, which seemed on this occasion to surpass itself in the extraordinary procession of demons, jesters, soldiers, sailors, savages, knights, niggers, lawyers, and nuns. Amongst the effigies finally devoted to the flames was that of Guiteau, the assassin of President Garfield. On Hampstead Heath the local bonfire club deferred their demonstration till Monday, the 7th November, when it was computed that at least 40,000 persons collected together. At Brighton, Margate, Dorchester, and Bridgewater, special Guy Fawkes Day demonstrations took place, and throughout the country, in villages and towns where the ancient custom had fallen into disuse, there were symptoms of revival.

A daring robbery at one of the London post-offices on the 16th of November became a nine days' wonder. The diamond merchants of Hatton Garden had been in the habit of sending valuable consignments of jewels in registered letters and other packets through the post on a particular day, and this usage, which was evidently well known to the thieves, enabled them to carry out their audacious theft with astonishing success. The post-office in Hatton Garden was in charge of female clerks. The Continental bags—one containing ordinary letters and another registered letters and packets—had been made up for conveyance to the General Post-office. The gas was suddenly turned off at the meter, and the whole building plunged into darkness. In the temporary confusion thus created the mail bags were taken from the hooks on which they were hanging behind the counter, and when the gas was relighted there was no trace of either bags or thieves. It was supposed at first that at least £80,000 worth of property had been stolen, and several days elapsed before the authorities were able to ascertain that the stolen stones and jewellery were worth £14,300, while cheques, post-office orders and lottery tickets brought the total up to £15,000. It was also ascertained that most of the packets were insured for more than their value. The police made every effort to discover the thieves and to trace the stolen property, but without success, although a substantial reward was offered by the insurance companies and the Postmaster-General, together with a promise of pardon to any accomplice, not being the actual appropriator of the goods, who should give such information as would lead to the apprehen-

sion and conviction of the robbers. One result of this robbery was a strict examination by the post-office officials into the conduct of the various district offices in the metropolis, and several measures were taken to prevent the recurrence of such a loss. There were other robberies of jewels during the last quarter of the year, notably a theft of jewels worth nearly £60,000 from Lord Trevor's seat at Brynkinalt, North Wales. The articles included a diamond necklace worth £10,000, and a large quantity of smaller jewels. The robbery was effected on a Sunday morning, and before night a cordon of men surrounded the park, and the police had minutely searched the mansion and grounds. Suspicion at first rested upon some domestics, the circumstances attending the crime showing on the part of the thieves a very intimate acquaintance with the house and the place where the jewels were deposited. The groom of the bed-chamber and an upper housemaid were arrested and kept for some time in custody, but it was eventually admitted by the prosecuting attorney that the evidence would not carry the case against the accused beyond suspicion, and they were set at liberty. In this, as in the Hatton Garden case, no real clue, notwithstanding continual reports to the contrary, was obtained.

In the month of December the Queen conferred the Victoria Cross upon Major Arthur G. Hammond, of the Bengal Staff Corps, for gallantry in holding the top of a hill with rifle and fixed bayonet, and carrying off wounded Sepoys at Asmai Heights, near Kabul, on the 14th of December, 1879; upon Lieut. W. H. Dick Cuninghame, of the second battalion of the Gordon Highlanders, for gallantry and coolness in holding his position at Sherpur Pass on the 13th of December, 1879; and upon the Rev. S. W. Adams, of the Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment, for gallantry in saving some men of the 9th Lancers at Kille Kazi on the 11th of December, 1879, when chaplain of the Kabul field forces.

Among the *causes célèbres* of English criminal justice will probably be numbered that which was known throughout the length and breadth of the country, in the summer and autumn of 1880, as the Brighton murder. A young man named Percy Lefroy Mapleton, commonly known as Percy Lefroy, was, on the 8th November, found guilty of the murder of Mr. Gould, at Balcombe, on the Brighton Railway, on the 27th June. The case created extraordinary interest, partly through the successful hiding for a time of the murderer, and partly through the singular circumstantial evidence by which the story of the crime was at last made clear. On the 27th June,

when the Brighton express from London stopped at Preston Park station for the collection of tickets, the collector found in a first class carriage a young man, covered with blood. He gave the name of Lefroy, and stated that he had left London Bridge with two other passengers in the same compartment, the one an elderly gentleman and the other a countryman of about fifty years of age. Before the train entered the tunnel a shot was fired, he felt a blow on the head, and remembered nothing more. This was the young man's statement. The ticket collector, however, noticed a piece of watch-chain hanging out of his boot, and Lefroy stated that he had placed his watch there for safety. He was taken in a cab to the County Hospital, had his wounds dressed, and then expressed a wish to return to London, where he said he was determined to offer a reward for the detection of the man who had attacked him. At the Town Hall, to which he was taken to report the case, he was searched, and two Hanoverian medals were found upon him. The railway authorities regarded his story with some suspicion, and sent a detective to convey him back to Croydon. On the plea of wishing to change his clothes, which were torn and stained with blood, Lefroy went, accompanied by the officer, to a house in Wallington, where, he stated, he lived with relatives. The young man, however, contrived to leave the house by a back door, saying that he wished to see a doctor, and then mysteriously disappeared. While the man had thus been allowed to escape, the line was searched, and, in the centre of the permanent way in the Balcombe tunnel, the body of Mr. Gould, a retired corn-merchant, residing in a suburb of Brighton, was found lying. There was every appearance of a severe struggle, and it looked as if the unfortunate gentleman had been thrown out of the carriage while still alive. He had been stabbed in several places. A sum of money which he had collected in London during the day, and his watch and chain, had been stolen. Three bullet marks were found in the carriage. A hue and cry was raised throughout the country, but for several days Lefroy successfully evaded capture. Information was at last given to the police that a person who might possibly be the missing man was residing at Stepney, and a detective there arrested him; the culprit remarked that he was glad they had found him, for he was sick of hiding. The trial came on at the November Assizes, before Lord Chief Justice Coleridge, at Maidstone. The Attorney-General prosecuted, dwelling mainly upon the facts that the prisoner was undoubtedly in the compartment in which the deadly struggle took place; that the watch-chain of the dead man was found upon him; that Hanoverian medals of the pattern

found by the police had been previously passed by him as sovereigns; that he was known on the morning of the murder to have a pistol in his possession; and that there was not the least corroboration of the prisoner's assertion that a third person was in the compartment. The prisoner was defended by Mr. Montagu Williams, who stated that Lefroy had an appointment to go to Brighton on the day of the murder with a young lady, and he also insisted that he was attacked and rendered insensible by a third person in the compartment, who had committed the crime and placed Mr. Gould's watch in the prisoner's shoe. No witnesses were called for the defence. The jury, after an absence of ten minutes, found a verdict of guilty, and, upon being sentenced to death, Lefroy left the dock saying "You will find out, when it is too late, that you have murdered me." The evidence produced at the trial showed that the prisoner had led a miserable kind of life. He was a young man of twenty-two years, and, in the words of the judge, was without money or occupation, was curiously erratic in his habits, and the reverse of scrupulous in regard to honesty. An immense mob had collected at Lewes, awaiting the arrival of the condemned man from Maidstone, and the cab in which he was conveyed moved off amidst popular execrations. Many persons took an interest in the young man's fate, and the Home Secretary was memorialised, praying that the sentence of death might be commuted, on the ground that his father and grandfather died insane, and that he himself was suffering from aberration of intellect at the time the crime was committed. The execution, nevertheless, took place on the 29th of November. A statement of the prisoner's confession was afterwards officially made in the newspapers. There was considerable discussion after the trial, both amongst lawyers and laymen, with respect to the remarks made by Lord Coleridge on the practice of counsel making statements not corroborated by evidence. His lordship, in summing up, said it was a most objectionable practice for a counsel, at the last moment, to make such statements, as coming from the prisoner.

The practice of bribery at elections received what it was hoped would be a death-blow by the sentences passed upon ten persons who had been found guilty of corrupt practices at the last general election in Maidstone, Deal, Sandwich, and Macclesfield. The prisoners were two boatmen, a farmer, three publicans, and four agents, solicitors in good social positions. In November Mr. Justice Denman, sitting in banco with Mr. Justice Hawkins and Mr. Justice Bowen, delivered judgment, remarking upon the

disgraceful corruption proved to have prevailed in the constituencies in question, and stating that the time had arrived when it was necessary to show that the courts of the country would not deal lightly with offences that had the effect of corrupting the poorer voters to whom the franchise had been entrusted for the good of the country. Sentences of imprisonment of from nine to two months' duration were passed, and the judge especially directed that the defendants should be treated as ordinary misdemeanants. The friends of the imprisoned men immediately commenced an agitation on their behalf. Memorials and petitions were sent for presentation to the Home Secretary, and were presented in a bulk at the Home Office. The total number of signatures asking for the remission of the sentences was 43,841, comprising 43 members of the House of Lords, 75 members of the House of Commons, 313 bankers, 1,113 clergymen, 1,015 justices of the peace, 162 mayors and ex-mayors, 2,095 members of public bodies, 4,623 professional men, 3,597 solicitors, and the remainder traders and others. Sir William Harcourt declined to interfere with the sentences pronounced by the judges appointed to administer the law. A few Liberal associations passed resolutions expressing a hope that the Government would not destroy the effect of this salutary warning given to bribers. One or two of the imprisoned men were, in course of time, released on account of ill-health.

A fatal balloon accident happened on the 10th December, Mr. Walter Powell, M.P. for Malmesbury, Captain Templer, R.E., and Mr. Agg-Gardner ascended in the Government balloon "Saladin" at Bath about midday, and crossed over Somerset towards the Dorsetshire coast. All went well until, about a mile west of Bridport, the aeronauts found themselves within half a mile of the Channel, and rapidly drifting seawards. Night closing in, they attempted to descend. The balloon came down with great rapidity, throwing Captain Templer and Mr. Agg-Gardner out of the car. Both sustained severe injuries, the former having his leg fractured. Captain Templer held to the valve line as long as he was able, and called to Mr. Powell, who was left in the car, to come down the line. The line, however, broke from Captain Templer's hands, and the balloon, set at liberty, rose rapidly and rushed out to sea. Mr. Powell, as well as could be seen in the dusk, was making every effort to work the ropes, but darkness came on rapidly, and the balloon was lost to view. Some witnesses maintained that they saw it strike the water within a few miles of the shore, but of this there was no distinct evidence. Day by day steamers searched the Channel; the Admiralty and the Meteorological Department instituted inquiries

on the Continent. Rewards were offered for the recovery of the missing gentleman, or his body. For many days it was hoped that the balloon had been picked up by some outward bound vessel, and that the hon. gentleman might be still alive. Now and again reports of a fugitive balloon were received from Spain, from the coast of Alderney, and from places so far remote in an opposite direction as Montrose. The fact remained that Mr. Powell and the balloon vanished in the darkness, and were never more seen. The deceased gentleman had been an enthusiastic balloonist, and had several times expressed a determination to persevere until he crossed the Atlantic in a balloon. A fortnight before the accident, in responding to the toast of his health at an agricultural dinner at Chippenham, he had referred to his balloon adventures, insisting that ballooning was not more dangerous than fox-hunting.

Again, in November and December, a series of destructive gales swept over the country. In the last month of the year there were three gales of almost cyclone force within a few weeks. Great damage was done along the south coast of England, and it afterwards transpired that there had been enormous loss of life at sea. During one of the storms the lighthouse at Calf Rock, ten miles from the mouth of Bantry Bay, was completely destroyed. The shipwrecks during 1881 numbered as many as 2,039 throughout the world, being an increase of 359 over the previous year. The number of British vessels lost was 1,048, of which 191 were steamers; 826 ships were lost off the coasts of England, Scotland, and Ireland alone. Four thousand one hundred and thirty-four persons perished during the year by shipwreck, and the loss of property included 132,459 tons of coal. Nearly 1,000,000 tons of produce were destroyed.

An astounding case of body-snatching came to light in December, when the remains of the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres twelve months after burial in the family vault at Dunecht, were found to have been disinterred and carried off. The late earl died in Florence on the 13th December in the previous year, and the body was embalmed by an Italian and brought in due course to the family seat in Scotland. It was buried in a new vault, which was, after an interval, closed up. A labourer going to his work in the early morning of the 1st December observed that an iron railing had been broken down, and one of the granite flags sealing up the entrance dislodged. An alarm was raised, and an inspection of the vault showed that of the three coffins which contained the body, the oaken one had been carefully opened, the

others, of lead and wood, more rudely dealt with, and the corpse abstracted. A rigorous search was instituted in the house and grounds, and the local and London police assisted in an organised investigation. A letter appearing in one of the Scotch papers purporting to give details of the theft of the body was pronounced to be a fabrication. Theories and rumours of all kinds were started, one theory being that the body had never reached England at all, but had been stolen in Florence. The balance of evidence, however, seemed to point to a conspiracy to levy blackmail from the Earl's family, and the public, who sympathised with them were much gratified when it was announced that under no circumstances would a reward be offered for the restitution of the body. It may be mentioned, by anticipation, that for months investigations were continued. The ground on the estate was thoroughly overhauled, and all hope of ever finding the remains was abandoned. In the following July, however, the mystery was partly set at rest by the finding of the body, buried two feet below the surface of the earth, in a thicket, near Dunecht Castle. It was wrapped in blankets, and had been thus interred for probably fourteen months. A professional rat-catcher and poacher confessed that in May, 1881, while engaged in midnight poaching, he saw four men burying the body, and that they forced him, under threats of death, to take an oath of secrecy. The rat-catcher was committed for trial, and the body of the late Earl was re-buried in the family vault at Wigan, in Lancashire.

The closing month of the year was marked by an event which, though apparently slight, is perhaps destined to have important consequences in the future. In the month of December, the first of a regular line of steamers, sailing directly under the Chinese flag between England and China, arrived in the Thames. She carried as passengers two Chinese merchants, managers of a new association commenced with a capital of £150,000, and numbering amongst its shareholders some of the most influential merchants and capitalists in China. The vessel was named the Mei Foo, and she brought the first cargo of tea that ever entered the London docks in a Chinese trading steamer.

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## CHAPTER II.

[JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH.]

THE dawn of the year 1882 was at least passively hopeful. A retrospect of 1881 induced the feeling that any change must be in the direction of improvement. In foreign politics there was peace, or at least that armed and watchful repose which passes for peace in modern Europe; and if professional diplomatists knew that there were ominous rumours from the shores of the Mediterranean, few could have anticipated that England would have begun and ended a war of no small magnitude before the year was out. The troubles which seemed imminent in South Africa had been staved off by adhesion to the Convention which the Boers had threatened to cast aside. In our great Eastern Empire there reigned peace and a fair measure of prosperity. At home there still brooded something of the depression created by a series of bad harvests, and something of the distress caused by the last billows of the flood of bad trade which had swept over the world during the past few years. But there were evident signs of reviving and advancing prosperity, and to many it seemed that the promised advent of the halcyon age of "Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform" was at hand. In Ireland alone the most sanguine could hardly see much improvement, though they might perhaps affect to find some grounds for hope. The condition of the country during the first quarter of the year 1882, may be said to have been, in its essential characteristics, a melancholy continuation of that which has been portrayed in the previous chapter. In pursuance of the promise made in their published circular, the members of the Ladies' Land League held meetings in various parts of Ireland on New Year's Day, as a challenge to the Government, who had declared their organisation illegal. Miss Parnell presided at the metropolitan meeting in Dublin, and offered to give the Chief Secretary an hour to redeem his pledge and put an end to the existence of their society. She then, on behalf of the Ladies' Land League, announced the intentions of its five hundred branches to hold meetings every Sunday, in spite of the official proclamation. On the following day, however, several lady Land Leaguers were arrested and others were summoned to appear before the magistrates. A more serious business, as showing the extent to which defiance was tending, was a seizure of arms by the Kilrush constabulary. An unsuspecting-looking



box, shipped in a Limerick steamer, was discovered to contain twenty Martini rifles, twenty sword bayonets, and four hundred rounds of ball cartridge. The consignment was addressed to a Justice of the Peace, who, however, stated that he knew nothing whatever about it. Two men who had been previously arrested in Dublin in connection with a seizure of arms in that city had been released from custody, but they were immediately re-arrested and consigned to prison under the Coercion Act.

On the first Tuesday in the year the working of the Land Act became the subject of discussion at an important meeting of landlords held in the Dublin Exhibition Palace. There were upwards of 3,000 persons present, and at the head of the movement were peers, members of Parliament, and landlords from all parts of Ireland. The Duke of Abercorn, who presided, at the opening of the proceedings explained that the object of the meeting was not to condemn the Land Act, but to criticise the manner in which it was being administered by the Sub-Commissioners, and his Grace subsequently stated that the landlords would not submit to have their fortunes sacrificed to propitiate a homicidal and seditious Land League. The meeting was addressed by the Earl of Dartrey, Lord Ardilaun, Lord J. Butler, the Marquis of Waterford, Mr. Edward Gibson, M.P., the Earl of Westmeath, Colonel King-Harman, and others. The tenants also held meetings to discuss the Land Act from their point of view.

According to custom the Irish mayors elected for the year were installed on the first working day of the New Year. In some boroughs the proceedings were marked with considerable excitement. This was especially the case in the metropolis. At the Dublin City Hall the customary vote of thanks to Dr. Moyers, the retiring Lord Mayor, was rejected by a considerable majority, on account of the casting vote given during his mayoralty, on the occasion when it was proposed to present the freedom of the City to Mr. Parnell and Mr. Dillon. Under the presidency of the new Lord Mayor, Mr. Dawson, M.P., the Corporation now returned to this proposal, and voted the freedom of the City to the incarcerated members. It was further resolved to ask the Lord Lieutenant to permit the hon. members to leave Kilmainham Gaol for the purpose of publicly receiving the honour, but the application, when it was made, was of course refused. In Cork City, the Parnellite candidate for the mayorship being defeated, a scene of disorder of quite a riotous description took place, some members of the Corporation, as a matter of fact, indulging in free fights before the proceedings closed.

Reports of outrages, disorder, and defiance of the law continued

week by week until the meeting of Parliament. Men with blackened faces roamed the country districts threatening or injuring people who manifested a disposition to pay their rents. Homesteads were burnt, and cattle were cruelly maimed or destroyed by midnight marauders. Bands of Land Leaguers organised themselves into assemblies for the purpose of openly hunting over private game preserves and fox coverts. Illegally concealed arms were seized in Cork and County Kerry, and quantities were given up to the constabulary in the South of Ireland under the Peace Preservation Act.

For a long period threatening notices, generally signed "Captain Moonlight," were sent about the country, and at a meeting of one of the Boards of Guardians each member received an ignorantly worded death-warrant, written on a post-card. The terrorism created by this mysterious band was somewhat checked by the arrest of a young man named Connell, upon whom were found documents signed "Captain Moonlight," and containing orders for the maiming of persons who either paid their rents, discharged their labourers, or dealt with unpopular tradesmen. Connell, however, who was proved to be the leader of many nocturnal outrages, turned informer, and by his means numerous miscreants were brought to trial. Connell made the not unusual defence of his class that he should not have turned informer if others had not turned on him. According to his statement the members of the organisation to which he had belonged were required to swear an oath—"to be true and faithful to the Irish Republic; to obey my superiors; to take up all arms when required; and death to the traitors." Mr. Justice Fitzgerald, in closing the assizes upon one of the circuits, commented on the fact that all the outrages which had occupied the attention of the Court had been committed upon the poor and the humble, living in lonely houses on the mountain side. One of the most atrocious of the crimes which, during the month of January, illustrated the reign of anarchy in Ireland was the murder of Lord Ardilaun's bailiffs. An old man and his grandson were sent into the lonely Joyce country of Connemara, in December, to serve writs. As they were not afterwards seen, mischief was feared. An organised search was instituted, and at the expiration of a month the sailors of Her Majesty's ship "Banterer," after dragging Lough Mask for some days, found the bodies of the unfortunate men tied up in sacks weighted with stones. There were four bullet wounds on the head of the old man, and others on the body of the boy. As usual, although numbers of persons were placed under arrest on suspicion, the murderers evaded capture. An attempt, which

fortunately failed, was made to inflict injury upon Mr. Forster, the Chief Secretary. Two days after his departure from the Castle for London a letter was received there addressed to him, bearing the Dublin post mark, and dated the 31st January. A suspicious stain led to a careful opening of the envelope, and the letter was found to contain a highly explosive compound which, had it not been slightly damp at the time of its arrival, would probably have exploded by the mere act of opening the packet. In the last week of January orders were issued for the immediate despatch to Ireland of 500 men of the Northumberland Fusiliers and of the 53rd Shropshire Regiment.

That the defiers of the law in Ireland were not wholly without sympathisers in England was proved at the Leeds assizes on the 8th February, when a quarryman named John Tobin was convicted on a charge of conspiring with others to commit an act of treason-felony. There had been uneasy, though vague rumours, for some months of Fenian plots and conspiracies in England, and special measures were taken for the protection of Mr. Gladstone in the country. This, however, was the first reliable proof that there were any foundations for such rumours. Tobin lived in a cellar in Bradford, and was "wanted" for assaulting the police. The officers, on visiting the cellar upon this quest, found, not the man, but a large deal box in which were new revolvers, cartridges, and documents. The latter referred to some organisation of the Irish Republican Brotherhood; spoke of war materiel for establishing the Republic; mentioned the grades of office that were to be bestowed; and indicated that each member bound himself to absolute secrecy and obedience to his superiors. It was not, however, believed that anything like a formidable organisation existed, but the charge against Tobin was so clearly brought home that he was sentenced to seven years' penal servitude. Whilst these demonstrations of disloyalty were of daily occurrence, several of the Catholic bishops and clergy denounced agrarian crimes, and called upon the people to hold no connection with their perpetrators. Archbishop Croke, at the same time expressed the belief that many of the so-called outrages had been grossly and wilfully exaggerated with the object of injuring the Land League. Copies of the Land League publications were seized, and, on the 25th February, an informer was assassinated in a crowded thoroughfare in Dublin. The miserable man, feeling that he was doomed to be murdered, had lived for a while almost entirely in the police barracks. Losing his work, he had at last to take refuge in the workhouse. From this retreat he one Saturday night ventured out, and was shot through

the head, without the slightest clue to the murderer being obtained.

After a hasty visit to London, for the opening of Parliament, Mr. Forster, towards the end of February, returned to his official post in Dublin. Although he had been held up to execration in the most violent terms by the leaders of the Land League, and knew that his life had been long threatened, the right hon. gentleman made a journey to some of the most disturbed districts in County Clare, and personally enquired into their lawless condition. He visited Athenry, Cullamore, Ennis, Limerick, Tulla, and Gort, occasionally mingling freely with the people, unattended by any escort. On one or two occasions he courageously addressed the crowd in the open air, calling upon them to aid the Government in preventing crime, and in fairly applying the Land Act.

Her Majesty, who had spent the Christmas holidays at Osborne, came to London on the 16th of February, held a drawing-room, and proceeded on the following Saturday to Windsor Castle, where she was visited by Princess Helen of Waldeck and her father. On the 2nd of March universal consternation was caused by an attempt to shoot her Majesty. The Queen and Princess Beatrice were returning from London, and on being driven out of the station yard at Windsor, a forlorn looking individual, who was standing in the front rank of the crowd in the road, fired a revolver at the carriage. Promptly seized by the police, he gave the name of Roderick Maclean, stated that he was a grocer's assistant, and that he would not have committed the crime had he not been rendered desperate from hunger. The weapon which he had used, when examined, was loaded in five of the chambers, and the bullet from the sixth was subsequently found embedded in the earth, and in a portion of the station premises which showed that the line of fire was perilously near the Queen. In the indignation of the moment the police had no little difficulty in saving the offender from lynch law, but, by surrounding their prisoner, they contrived to convey him to the Windsor police station unhurt. Messages of sympathy and congratulation were promptly telegraphed or written to the Queen from foreign courts and governments, and all parts of the realm. The inquiries made into Roderick Maclean's antecedents revealed that he was respectably connected, but had been living a vagabond existence in various parts of the country; and the widespread alarm originally created by the attempt, which, it was foolishly suggested, might have had political significance, decreased when,

before long, conclusive evidence was forthcoming that Maclean, if not at the time positively insane, had been so, and had always been an individual of weak intellect. While in custody he volunteered the following statement in writing :—

“Police Office, Windsor, March 2, 1882.—I am not guilty of the charge of shooting with the intention of causing actual bodily harm. My object was, by frightening her Majesty the Queen, to alarm the public, with the result of having my grievances respected—namely, such as the pecuniary straits in which I have been situated. All the circumstances tend to prove this statement. Firstly, had I desired to injure the Queen I should have fired at her when she was quitting the waiting-room; quite on the contrary, I pointed the pistol at the wheels; but, as I felt a slight kick, doubtless the contents may have lodged on one of the doors. If her Majesty will accept this explanation, and allow the words ‘with intent of intimidating her,’ instead of ‘causing grievous bodily harm,’ to be inserted in the indictment, in that event I will offer all assistance in my power to bring this charge to a speedy issue. I hope her Majesty will accept the only consolation I can offer her—namely, I had no intention whatever of causing her any injury.—RODERICK MACLEAN.”

An address from both Houses of Parliament, congratulating Her Majesty upon her escape, was presented at Windsor Castle on the 10th of March, the House of Lords being represented by Earl Spencer, Earl Sydney, and the Earl of Kenmare, and the House of Commons by Mr. Gladstone, Sir William Harcourt, Lord Kensington, and Lord Charles Bruce. At a special grand lodge of Freemasons, presided over by the Prince of Wales, a resolution of gratitude at the Queen's escape was enthusiastically carried. The Corporation of London and other cities and towns, and many public bodies—religious, political, and social—presented addresses of loyalty and devotion. Through the Home Secretary, Her Majesty, on the 12th of March, on leaving England for “some comparative rest and quiet,” thanked the nation for the deep sympathy expressed by all classes on the occasion of the recent attempt on her life. Previous to her departure, the Empress of Austria, who, in lieu of her customary visit to Ireland, had spent the hunting season in Cheshire, had an interview with the Queen at Windsor. The Queen, accompanied by Princess Beatrice, embarked on board the royal yacht at Portsmouth on the 14th of March, and, by way of Cherbourg, proceeded to Mentone, travelling as the Countess of Balmoral.

The Marquis of Lorne, who had spent some time in the country, sailed from Liverpool on the 11th January, to resume his Viceregal duties in Canada.

The winter of 1881-82, notwithstanding numerous plausible forecasts to the contrary published during the autumn, proved to be extremely mild. Much sooner than tradition allows, the old-fashioned weather prophets observed a premature movement amongst the migratory birds, and a superabundance of hips and haws, and other berries in the hedges, such as their forefathers associated with coming frost and snow. It was therefore thought that the memorable winter of 1880 might be repeated, and in the month of November a heavy snowstorm, reported from the northern part of the kingdom, seemed to give warrant for these weather-wise predictions. But happily for the poor and outcast they were not fulfilled. During the late autumn and early winter violent storms of wind and rain were undoubtedly experienced, but there was little frost and snow, and throughout the three kingdoms there befell what is known as a "green Christmas." The season generally, indeed, was so preternaturally mild that garden plants, whose nature it is to succumb to the first severe frost, lived to bloom again in the summer.

The particulars of a fatal explosion on board Her Majesty's ship "Triumph" were forwarded by the Secretary of the Admiralty to the London newspapers on the 13th of January. They were in the nature of a dispatch just received from Rear-Admiral Stirling, Commander-in-Chief on the Pacific Station, stating that three men had been killed and several wounded by an explosion of painter's material, technically known as xerotine siccative. The dangerous stuff was stowed away in the paint room, and, as it was shown, directly contrary to Admiralty instructions. A marine went into the stores with a light, and, by an instantaneous explosion he was, in the words of the official communication, literally blown to pieces. The explosion was so tremendous in its violence that scientific inquiries were ordered as to the nature of the xerotine siccative which was used in the Navy for mixing with paint, to facilitate drying. The immediate effect of the investigation was the enforcement of an instruction forbidding the use of so dangerous a compound on board Her Majesty's ships. One singular result of this accident on board the "Triumph" was the raising of the question whether the destruction of the "Doterel" in South America, which O'Donovan Rossa had claimed as an act of vengeance executed by the Fenian Brotherhood, had not been caused by a leakage of this compo-

sition, the enormous and perilous power of which had not previously been generally known.\*

Amongst the death penalties passed during the Spring Assizes were two at Nottingham upon youths under eighteen years of age. In one case an ignorant and sullen farm labourer, named Herbert Snell, having some insignificant grievance, had murdered his master, an aged farmer living at Wheatley, by beating him with a stable fork. The jury found the prisoner guilty, but recommended him to mercy on account of his youth. The recommendation was favourably considered, and the young murderer's sentence commuted to penal servitude for life. The other case was that of a youthful solicitor's clerk, named Henry Westby, who had, under astoundingly cold-blooded circumstances, shot his father at home, walked to the solicitor's office in which he was employed, and hacked the office boy to death with a butcher's knife. Westby also was sentenced to death, but, on the grounds of insanity, this sentence was also commuted. During the same week an old man of seventy, who had savagely attacked and killed a brother pauper in the Devizes Union Workhouse, was executed at Devizes.

The accounts which reached this country towards the end of January of the terrible persecutions to which the Jews in Russia were being subjected, provoked a strong feeling on their behalf in England. To give practical expression to British sympathy, an influential meeting was held at the Mansion House, and a series of resolutions passed deploring the persecution of the Jews in Russia as an offence to civilization, and condemning the Russian laws under which such offences were possible. A committee, which included the Lord Mayor, the Archbishop of Canterbury, Cardinal Manning, and several members of both Houses of Parliament, was formed, and at one sitting the sum of £15,000 was subscribed for the relief of the persecuted Jews. In Manchester, at the Court of Common Council in London, at the City of London Liberal Club and elsewhere, sympathy with the sufferers was similarly expressed by resolutions and by the contribution of funds.

Two convicts, named respectively Henry Johnson and Samuel Clowes, were liberated from Millbank Prison on Saturday, the 14th January, under almost romantic circumstances. Two years

\* In the following July, the Explosives Committee appointed to enquire into the loss of the "Doterel," made experiments with xerotine siccative, at Chatham. A tank containing coal-gas was exploded. It communicated with a second tank filled with xerotine siccative, and this also exploded with most destructive effect. The experiments extended over a period of four months.

previously these men had been sentenced each to ten years' penal servitude, having been found guilty by a Staffordshire jury of mutilating a brother farmer named Isaac Brooks. The three men occupied small farms not far removed from each other in the hill country of North Staffordshire, near Leek. Brooks was a young man who, in addition to farming, followed the occupation of a stonemason and contractor. One night in December, 1879, he came home much exhausted through loss of blood from injuries he had received, and, after much pressure from his friends, he was induced to state that upon leaving a public-house festival four men had jumped over a hedge, thrown a bag over his head, and mutilated him in a shocking manner. The chief assailants, he said, though with inexplicable reluctance, were Johnson and Clowes. There were several suspicious circumstances in connection with the case, but upon certain circumstantial evidence as to ill-feeling between Brooks and Clowes, resulting from unpleasant family matters, the jury believed the story of the prosecutor, and found the men guilty. Some time afterwards the young farmer Brooks was treated in hospital for a similar wound to that which had been previously inflicted upon him, but on this occasion he doggedly declined to give any account of what had taken place. From this time a belief gained ground amongst the scattered population of the rural district that their former neighbours had been wrongly convicted. In the early part of 1881 Brooks died, and, on his death-bed he confessed to a brother farmer and local preacher, named Harrison, that he had borne false testimony against Johnson and Clowes. The whole story was re-investigated, first by newspaper correspondents, and next by the Home Office, and the result was the liberation of the men. The families of the convicts, during their incarceration, had suffered severe privations, and public sympathisers urged that the released men should not be forced to begin life again without resources. Sir William Harcourt, the Home Secretary, was appealed to by Mr. Craig, M.P., on behalf of these sympathisers, and £500 was given to each, the Home Secretary, on being appealed to for a larger amount, writing: "I am entirely sensible that no mere pecuniary compensation can indemnify them for the past, but you will feel that in this matter I am acting as a trustee of public funds, and am bound to deal with the matter, so far as it is a money question, with a due regard to the public interest."

An amusing agitation, which nearly assumed the proportions of an intense public sensation, was worked up in the month of February over the departure of a big African elephant from the Zoological Gardens in London. The animal, which for the time



being became the hero of the period, and which was named Jumbo, enjoyed the reputation of being the largest elephant in captivity in the world. The Council of the Zoological Society, after mature deliberation, sold Jumbo to a company of New York showmen, but as the animal, when invited to enter the Brobdingnagian box on wheels by which it was purposed to convey him on ship-board, evinced signs of obstinacy and fear, the matter suddenly attracted public attention. Thereupon a degree of interest, which frequently approached a most extravagant character, was shown in the departing pet. The papers were flooded with letters exclaiming against the cruelty about to be committed, and with special articles describing every movement of the elephant. Harsh accusations were made against the Council of the Society; crowds of people went daily to the Zoological Gardens, and every stage of preparation for the exportation of the beast, which was fourteen feet high, was chronicled. The conveyance across London of an animal weighing about six tons, in a cage, was not an easy matter, but it was at last safely accomplished. Meanwhile, however, Chancery was invoked to prevent the Council of the Zoological Society from parting with the animal, the argument being that as the Society was a chartered corporation, founded for the promotion of science, it had acted illegally. Mr. Justice Chitty at once decided in favour of the Council, whose defence was that Jumbo, quiet and tractable as he generally was known to be, especially when in the Garden amongst children, had reached an age when keeping him in confinement could only be done at considerable risk. Jumbo, accordingly, was drawn by a long team of horses in the dead of night through the streets of London in his cage, which, in the presence of great crowds, was next day slung on board the *Egyptian Monarch*, and conveyed, without accident, to New York. The popular supposition that Jumbo would turn obstreperous and probably force his way out of his box and escape through the streets of London was entirely falsified by the event, for the creature was, after his first contact with the chains with which it was necessary to fetter him, perfectly docile.

An incident, probably unprecedented in the history of the Royal Arsenal at Woolwich, diversified one of the runs of the West Kent Hunt in February. As usual, a number of officers from the garrison were in the field. The meet was at Chislehurst, and as the huntsmen were about to uncart their deer they started a doe which had escaped a month previously. The pack at once started in pursuit, and the deer, after an exciting run of two hours, crossed Plumstead Common, bounded over the North Kent Railway, and finally ran through the magazine gate into the

precincts of the Royal Arsenal, where, in spite of the opposition of the policeman on duty, the sportsmen entered pell-mell. The deer, followed by the pack of hounds and a large field of huntsmen, charged completely through the Royal Arsenal, and was finally taken in a corner, to afford sport another day.

In promotion of an International Fisheries Exhibition, to be held in London during 1883, the first of a series of meetings was held in Willis's Rooms on the 27th February. The chair was taken by the Prince of Wales, and there were also present the Duke of Edinburgh and the Duke of Teck. The success of the fisheries exhibition held at Norwich in the preceding year suggested to pisciculturists, and persons interested in food supply, that the subject was worthy of being worked out on a much larger scale than had ever before been attempted either in England or on the continent, where fishery exhibitions are better known. The International Fisheries Exhibition of 1883 was therefore formally decided upon at this meeting. Several Foreign Ambassadors, the Lord Mayor, the Prime Warden of the Fishmongers' Company, Masters of the City Companies, representatives of the Colonies, learned societies, fisheries associations, and angling societies, were present to certify their approval and support. A list of Vice-Presidents was read, headed by the names of six royal princes, sixteen dukes, sixteen marquises and earls, the Speaker of the House of Commons, several members of the Cabinet, Sir Stafford Northcote, and Mr. W. H. Smith, M.P., while the General Committee, which was very influential, secured for its President the Duke of Richmond, and Mr. E. Birkbeck, M.P., as Chairman of the Executive. Before the meeting separated the objects of the exhibition were explained, the report setting forth that it would be illustrative of every available object connected with sea and fresh-water fishing, the preparation, preservation, and utilisation of fish, fish culture, the natural history of fish, the history and literature of fishing, and the economical condition of fishermen. The date of opening was subsequently fixed for May-day, 1883. Sir Brandreth Gibbs was appointed Manager, and the Horticultural Gardens at South Kensington fixed upon as the site of the exhibition.

An interesting communication was published by the Secretary of the Admiralty in March describing the present condition of the Pitcairn Islanders. Her Majesty's Ship *Thetis* had, on her way to Otaheite, sighted the island in the April of the previous year, and, while standing off Bounty Bay, the weather being too unsettled to allow the ship to anchor, two boats came off from the island. They were the whale-boats previously sent

to the islanders by the Pitcairn Committee in London. Several of the principal islanders went on board the man-of-war, returning at dark. On the following day the crew of the vessel landed, and the Pitcairn Islanders were found to be in the enjoyment of perfect health and universal contentment. The last visit of an English ship had been in September, 1878. In the interval the population had been increased by six persons, so that the island now numbered 96 souls. As was supposed at the time of their purchase, the whale-boats had proved a most acceptable and valuable present.

The movement for the establishment of a Royal College of Music, which had been brought before the North of England public at the great meeting at Manchester, described in the previous chapter, was vigorously prosecuted in London at the commencement of the season. On the 28th of February the Prince of Wales presided over a meeting at St. James's Palace, and the scheme had now so far developed that His Royal Highness was able to announce that a site for the college would be provided by the Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1851, and that the institution would be connected with the Albert Hall.

Another batch of Victoria Crosses was gazetted in the month of March. The honours were conferred upon officers and men who had been engaged in the recent operations in South Africa, and were thus described:—Lieutenant Alan Richard Hill, 2nd Battalion the Northamptonshire Regiment, for gallant conduct at the action of Laing's Nek, on the 28th of January, 1881, in having, after the retreat was ordered, remained behind and endeavoured to carry out of action Lieutenant Baillie of the same corps, who was lying on the ground severely wounded. Being unable to lift that officer into the saddle, he carried him in his arms until Lieutenant Baillie was shot dead. Lieutenant Hill then brought a wounded man out of action on his horse, after which he returned and rescued another, all these acts being performed under a heavy fire. Private John Doogan, late 1st Dragoon Guards, for gallant conduct during the action of Laing's Nek, on the 28th of January, 1881. During the charge of the mounted men Private Doogan, servant to Major Brownlow, 1st Dragoon Guards, seeing that officer (whose horse had been shot) dismounted and among the Boers, rode up and (though himself severely wounded) dismounted and pressed Major Brownlow to take his horse, receiving another wound while trying to induce him to accept it. Lance-Corporal James Murray, late 2nd Battalion the Connaught Rangers, and Trooper John Dana-her, Nourse's Horse, for their gallant conduct during an engage-

ment with the Boers at Elandsfontein on the 16th of January, 1881, in advancing for 500 yards under a very heavy fire from a party of about sixty Boers, to bring out of action a private of the 21st Foot who had been severely wounded, in attempting which Lance-Corporal Murray was himself severely wounded. Private James Osborne, 2nd Battalion the Northamptonshire Regiment, for his gallant conduct at Wesselstroom, on the 22nd of February, 1881, in riding under a heavy fire towards a party of forty-two Boers, picking up Private Mayes, who was lying wounded, and carrying him safely into camp.

Notwithstanding the fatal accident to Mr. Powell, M.P., Col. Brine, R.E., and Mr. Simmons, the aeronaut, on the 4th of March, attempted a long-projected aerial voyage from Canterbury to the French coast. The wind, which had for some time been contrary, appeared fair on the day in question, and the Meteorological office prognostications were also favourable. Storing their balloon with food, drink, and life-saving apparatus, the aeronauts ascended amidst the cheers of a multitude of spectators. Matters did not, however, turn out as prosperously as the voyagers anticipated. Instead of travelling south and reaching Boulogne in three hours, as they had calculated upon doing, the balloon, having attained a low altitude, skirted the sea, and passed over Shakespeare Cliff at a distance of about 500 feet from the earth. Little headway was made, notwithstanding the throwing out of ballast, and the increasing of the altitude to 1,200 feet. As the day wore on, the balloon began to drift slowly towards the North Sea, and Mr. Simmons determined to descend into the water. Selecting an opportunity when the *Foam* mail packet was near, the balloon was allowed to drop into the sea, and the adventurers were, not without some difficulty, got on board and brought back to Dover, the balloon being also safely returned. The next attempt to cross the Channel was more successful. Col. F. Burnaby, author of *A Ride to Khiva*, and a fearless amateur balloonist, without any previous announcement of his intentions, started on the 23rd March, taking with him a few sandwiches, a bottle of Apollinaris water, a rug, and some twenty bags of sand. The trip was pleasantly accomplished across the Channel, and in the evening the balloonist descended at the Château de Montigny, near Caen. At one period of the journey across the Channel, the balloon drifted and became stationary, but being relieved of ballast it shot up to a height of 11,000 feet.

A royal visit was paid to Milford Haven and Pembroke Dockyard by the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh on Saturday, the 18th of March. Great expense had been incurred at Milford

with the object of establishing an Ocean Express to America. The immediate purpose of the royal visit was the inspection of the magnificent docks, which had been completed, including one of the finest graving docks in the world. Having examined the works, the Duke and Duchess proceeded by steamer to Pembroke Dockyard, where her Imperial Highness launched a new ship of war, christening her by the name of the *Edinburgh*. She is one of the largest ironclads afloat, and designed to make fourteen knots per hour. The *Edinburgh* is 325 feet long and 68 feet broad. When equipped her tonnage will be increased from 4,800 to 9,150 tons. Her armament consists of four 43-ton breech-loading guns in turrets, and four 6-inch breech-loading guns in the superstructure. She has an indicating horse-power of 6,000, and a crew of 400 men. The armour-plating is of the most improved pattern, and in some places is eighteen inches thick. Like all recent additions to the navy, the ship carries machine guns for defence against torpedo-boats. The ram is forged as part of the stem, beyond which it projects six and a half feet at about nine feet below load water-line. On the following Monday their Royal Highnesses, who were visiting the coast in the *Lively*, went on to Haverfordwest and St. David's. On re-embarking they proceeded westwards to Penzance, where the Royal Naval Reserves were inspected. On the Tuesday morning following another large war-vessel, namely, the double-turret ship *Colossus*, was launched at Portsmouth Dockyard by Lady Emma Baring, sister to Lord Northbrook, First Lord of the Admiralty. The *Colossus* was the heaviest ship ever launched at Portsmouth. Her tonnage when launched was 9,150; length 325 feet; breadth 68 feet. In most respects the *Colossus* is similar to the *Inflexible*, the turrets being in both ships movable, and placed on either side of the middle line. The *Colossus* shows many improvements in detail, especially in the armour and armaments. Instead of 80-ton guns of the type carried by the *Inflexible*, the turrets of the *Colossus* were designed for four 43-ton guns, but they are breech-loading weapons of improved pattern, capable of penetrating twenty-two inches of iron or nineteen inches of steel. Machine guns, according to the prevailing fashion, are arranged to fire from the superstructure in all directions. While the *Inflexible* was built of iron, the *Colossus* was constructed entirely of steel.

The peculiar interest which from time immemorial has been manifested in the work of the poisoner was not lacking as an accompaniment to the trial of George Henry Lamson for the wilful murder of Percy Malcolm John. The social position of the

murderer, his relation to his victim, and the information given almost for the first time to the general public of a subtle and deadly poison of which previously they had known little, contributed to surround what was known as "the Wimbledon murder," with an interest which did not flag until the penalty of the law was enforced. The trial took place at the Central Criminal Court before Mr. Justice Hawkins on the 8th of March, and lasted for five days. Lamson was a surgeon, aged 29, and Percy Malcolm John, his brother-in-law, a youth of 19 years of age, who was finishing his education at Blenheim House School, Wimbledon. On December 3rd, 1881, as the evidence detailed, Mr. Lamson called at the school to see his relative, who, although helpless in his lower limbs and suffering from paralysis as well as spinal curvature, was, in other respects, strong and healthy. The lad had spent a merry day with his school-fellows, and was in average health and spirits. Upon the arrival of his brother-in-law being announced at the school, the lad, according to custom, was carried in and joined his relative and Mr. Bedbrook, the proprietor of the school. A decanter of sherry was produced by the latter, and a Dundee cake and some sweetmeats by Mr. Lamson, who also asked for sugar, on the strange pretext that it would neutralise the alcohol of the sherry. The conversation having been led to the taking of medicine by school-boys, Lamson produced two boxes of gelatine capsules, which he said would greatly assist boys in taking their physic. Mr. Bedbrook swallowed one of the capsules to see what they were like, and meanwhile Lamson took a capsule from the second box, filled it with sugar, and handed it to his young brother-in-law, remarking, "Now let Mr. Bedbrook see what a swell pill-taker you are." Shortly afterwards, Mr. Lamson, alleging that he was in a hurry to catch a train for Paris, left the house. Within an hour the poor lad who had taken the capsule became very sick, and, in spite of every effort, at about 11 o'clock he died in agony. Suspicions were aroused as to the cause of death, and they were confirmed by the discovery that a vegetable alkaline poison, of a presumably deadly nature (proved subsequently to be aconitine), had been taken into the stomach. Mr. Lamson carried out his intention of crossing to the Continent. The suspicions of foul play, however, soon assumed the shape of an open accusation against him, and he, learning from the English papers that he was supposed to have caused the death of his brother-in-law, returned voluntarily from France, and went to Scotland Yard to give himself up. This was strongly urged in his favour at the trial, although it was pointed out that he was quite as liable to be arrested in France as in England, and that at the time of his return he had only a few

francs left in his possession. The evidence against the prisoner, though mainly circumstantial, was, as a whole, damnatory. A great deal of valuable scientific evidence was given respecting alkaloid vegetable poisons, and especially upon the various forms of aconitine, eminent specialists being called into the witness-box and subjected to severe cross-examination. The case against the accused, however, did not wholly rest upon medical evidence. It was shown that if Percy Malcolm John died before he attained the age of 21, Lamson's wife would inherit £1,500 left under her father's will. Further, at the time of the fatal visit to Wimbledon, Lamson was in pecuniary straits. It was also shown that his professional career had not been blameless. He had, for example, at Bournemouth, assumed degrees to which he was not entitled, and had, because of this, been expelled from a local medical society. As in the case of the murderer Lefroy, Mr. Montagu Williams, who defended the criminal, called no witnesses. The verdict was one of "Guilty." The prisoner, who appeared to be under the influence of the calmness of despair, when asked whether he had any reason to urge why sentence of death should not be passed upon him, said, "merely to protest my innocence before God." The jury, before separating, handed the judge a written paper expressing their opinion that greater restrictions ought to be placed on the sale of poisons, and upon this there was much public correspondence in the papers, revealing a singular laxity in the dispensing of dangerous drugs. Strong efforts were made to obtain a reprieve for the criminal. An extraordinarily large number of medical men and others prepared a memorial praying for a respite on the ground that the medical evidence as to the use of aconitia was by no means conclusive. It was even stated that there were many experts who, if called, could have proved that the evidence of the medical men who had given evidence for the prosecution was worthless. A further plea was, that the prisoner had been in the habit of prescribing aconitia, and had personally used injections of morphia and atropia so often that his mind was at times affected. A statement to the latter effect was made by the prisoner himself during the interval between his trial and execution. As Lamson was an American-born citizen, efforts were made on the other side of the Atlantic to obtain a remission of his sentence. At the request of the President of the United States, communicated to the Government through the American Minister, the execution was postponed for a fortnight, it being stated that documents proving the convicted man's insanity were on their way to England. Lamson was distinctly warned that the respite granted raised no presumption

of a final reprieve or commutation of sentence, and despite the extraordinary exertions made to save him, he was executed on the 28th of April.

Within three days of the administration of aconitine by Lamson to his unsuspecting brother-in-law, a poisoning case of a somewhat different character, but equally deadly in its results, happened in Sheffield, where an elderly man named Thomas Skinner, a local artist, died from the introduction of arsenic into his food. At the following February assizes Felicia Dorothea Kate Dover, aged 27, was put on her trial on a charge of wilful murder. The woman had been Mr. Skinner's housekeeper. There had been frequent quarrels of a petty nature between them, but the trial disclosed no strong motive for the commission of so heinous a crime. The bare facts, as to which there was no dispute, were, that on the 5th December the housekeeper purchased a small quantity of arsenic, which she said she wanted for colouring artificial flowers. The old gentleman, Mr. Skinner, was in the enjoyment of his usual health at the time, but his housekeeper was heard to volunteer the remark that he was ill, and that she thought he was going to die. A forcible point was made of this at the trial. On the day following the purchase of the arsenic she prepared a fowl for dinner, and made two portions of seasoning, one of which she put aside in a vessel. After dinner the artist was taken violently ill, and died the same night with undoubted symptoms of arsenical poisoning. The woman on the same day was either ill, or, as the prosecution suggested, feigned to be ill, but she presented no symptoms of suffering from the effects of poison; and the most telling item of testimony against her was, that though the stuffing of which she had eaten from the fowl was free from arsenic, the reserved portion in the can was heavily loaded with that poison. In the face of the defence that the deceased had either committed suicide or that some arsenic had got into the food accidentally, and also of the contention by the prisoner's counsel that she had nothing to gain, but, on the contrary, everything to lose by the death of her master, the jury found the prisoner guilty of the minor crime of manslaughter. Surprise was expressed in some quarters at the lenient view taken by the jury, but there was compensating satisfaction at the sentence of penal servitude for life passed upon the accused.

The third Session of the tenth Parliament of Queen Victoria's reign was opened by Royal Commission on Tuesday, the 7th February. Since the prorogation on the 27th August there had been about the average number of changes in the *personnel* of both



Houses. Amongst the peers there had been a few deaths and a few creations. General Lord Airey, dying without male issue, the barony to which, for his long military services, he was raised in 1876, became extinct. The Earl of Airlie, deceased, was succeeded by Lord Polwarth as a Scotch representative peer. Lord Carew, Viscount Bangor, and Lord Lurgan had died during the recess. At the opening of Parliament the new peers were Lord Boston; Charles William, third Earl of Gainsborough; William, third Baron Lurgan; the Marquess of Tweeddale, created Baron Tweeddale of Yester, county Haddington; the Earl of Howth, created Baron Howth of Howth, county Dublin; Lord Reay, created Baron Reay of Durness, county Sutherland; Sir Harcourt V. B. Johnstone, created Baron Derwent of Hackness, North Riding; Sir Henry James Tufton, created Baron Hothfield of Hothfield, Kent; and Sir Dudley Coutts Marjoribanks, created Baron Tweedmouth of Edington, county Berwick. The new members of the House of Commons were Mr. Alexander Asher, Solicitor-General for Scotland, who had succeeded Mr. Grant Duff in the representation of the Elgin Burghs; Mr. Lowther, succeeding Mr. Laycock, deceased, in the northern division of the county of Lincoln; Sir George Elliot, representing the northern division of the county of Durham, in the place of Lieutenant-Colonel J. Joicey, deceased; Mr. Bulwer, Q.C., succeeding Mr. Rodwell, retired, as member for the county of Cambridge; Mr. T. A. Dickson as member for Tyrone, in the place of Mr. Litton, who had taken office as one of the Land Commissioners in Ireland; Mr. Jerningham, elected for Berwick-on-Tweed on Sir D. C. Marjoribanks' elevation to the peerage; Mr. Porter, Solicitor-General for Ireland, elected for county Londonderry *vice* Mr. Hugh Law, appointed Lord Chancellor of Ireland; Viscount Ebrington, succeeding the late Mr. Massie as member for Tiverton; Mr. Thomas Salt, elected by the constituency of Stafford in the room of Mr. Macdonald, deceased; Mr. Jones Jenkins, succeeding in the Carmarthen Burghs Mr. B. T. Williams, who had accepted a County Court Judgeship; the Hon. Mr. Dawnay, who, after a severe contest with Mr. Rowlandson, a tenant farmer, had been elected in the North Riding in the place of Lord Helmsley, deceased; and Mr. Cecil Raikes, who, upon the appointment of Sir John Holker to a Lord Justiceship of Appeal, had been elected for Preston.

The first paragraph in the Queen's Speech announced that Her Majesty had signified her approval of a marriage between Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany, and Her Serene Highness Princess Helen of Waldeck and Pyrmont. After the congratulatory state-

ment that the nation continued in relations of cordial harmony with all foreign powers, the speech referred to the cession of Thessaly to the Greek kingdom, to the attention that had been paid to the affairs of Egypt, to the restoration of peace beyond the north-western frontier of India, to the ratification of the Convention with the Transvaal, and to the unsettled condition of Basutoland. Upon the all-important question of Ireland Her Majesty was enabled to state that the condition of the country at that time, as compared with what she described at the beginning of the previous year, showed signs of improvement, and encouraged the hope that perseverance in the course initiated by the Government would be rewarded with the happy results which were so much to be desired. Justice had been administered with greater efficiency, and the intimidation which had been employed to deter occupiers of land from fulfilling their obligations, and from availing themselves of the Act of the previous session, showed upon the whole a diminished force. Amongst the measures announced for consideration by Parliament were:—Proposals for the establishment in the English and Welsh counties of local self government; the reform of the ancient and distinguished Corporation of the City of London, together with the extension of municipal government to the metropolis at large; Bankruptcy reform; Repression of Corrupt Practices at Elections; the Conservancy of Rivers, and Prevention of Floods; Criminal codification; the consolidation and amendment of the laws affecting patents; the law of entail; educational endowments in Scotland; and improved means of education in Wales.

Upon the House of Commons assembling for business, according to usage, at 4 o'clock in the afternoon on the day of opening, Mr. Bradlaugh, the member for Northampton, monopolised the first share of eager attention in a crowded house. It was no secret that the hon. member intended to renew the struggle he had previously made for admission to the privileges of his seat. During the previous Session, having been declared by the Law Courts to be incapable of making an affirmation in lieu of the oath, he applied for the Chiltern Hundreds, again contested Northampton, and was again returned. Presenting himself in due time at the table of the House to take the oath and his seat, Sir Stafford Northcote, as Leader of the Opposition, objected, and the Speaker called upon the House to determine whether Mr. Bradlaugh should be sworn. Although Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright supported his claim, the House decided by a large majority not to allow the elect of Northampton to take his seat. Mr. Bradlaugh was removed by the officers of the House. The

hon. gentleman, finding that an Oaths Bill, derisively called by his enemies a Bradlaugh Relief Bill, was not introduced, once more tried to force his claims upon the House towards the end of the Session of 1881, and a disgraceful and painful scene ensued, upon his ejection from the precincts of the House by violence. Happily a repetition of this unprecedented episode did not take place at the opening of the Session of 1882. The Speaker, following the custom always observed at the commencement of the Session, called on the new members to come to the table, and Mr. Bradlaugh, as the last of the group, approached from the bar, and was about to take the New Testament in his hand, when Sir Stafford Northcote interfered, and submitted a resolution, which was an echo of that previously carried by the House. Mr. Bradlaugh was requested to withdraw below the bar, and obeyed the order, appealing at the same time to the House to hear him before it came to a decision. In due course the Home Secretary, on the part of the Government (the Prime Minister being temporarily absent), stated that the House was incompetent to vary the provisions of the statute under which Mr. Bradlaugh claimed to take the oath, or to enquire into the religious opinions of any individual; and Mr. Newdegate, on the other side, having protested against Mr. Bradlaugh's contention that if he took God's name in vain it would be equivalent to the declaration which the law permitted unbelievers to make, the member for Northampton addressed the House, vigorously asserting his right to take the oath. He offered to stand aside for a reasonable time if the House would take into consideration an Affirmation Bill, and to apply for the Chiltern Hundreds, and abide by the decision of his constituents if it were deprived of all retrospective operation. The question, after some discussion, was put to the vote, there being a considerable majority against the member for Northampton's claim. Mr. Bradlaugh was once more directed to withdraw, and with the observation that he did not think it dignified to enter into a conflict with the House, took his seat below the bar. It may here be stated that Mr. Bradlaugh's case frequently occupied the attention of the House during the early part of the session. A motion for a new writ, moved by Mr. Labouchere, Mr. Bradlaugh's colleague in the representation of Northampton, being thrown out, Mr. Bradlaugh, who had listened to the debate from a seat under the gallery, walked to the table, took a Testament from his pocket, recited the form of the oath in an audible voice, spoke the usual formula, "So help me God," kissed the book, and unfolded and signed a piece of paper. He was reminded by the Speaker of the resolution passed on the 7th of February, and directed to withdraw

below the bar. "I have now," said Mr. Bradlaugh, "taken the oath according to law, and I shall take my seat in the House." This promise he immediately fulfilled, by seating himself on his former seat below the gangway, but upon the Speaker reminding him that the orders of the chair had not been obeyed, he bowed, and said that, having taken the oath and seat according to law, he would obey the Speaker's direction. An attempt was now made to submit a resolution declaring that Mr. Bradlaugh had vacated his seat in the same manner as if he were dead. It was pointed out, however, that there was no legal ground for such a course, and the immediate difficulty was avoided by Mr. Bradlaugh, through Mr. Labouchere, announcing that he was willing to have the question submitted to judicial decision, and would undertake not to raise the point about sitting during debate, and not to sit or vote in the interval. On the following day, after a heated debate, a resolution of expulsion was passed on the proposition of Sir Stafford Northcote, the ground being that Mr. Bradlaugh had disobeyed the orders of the House, and had, in contempt of its authority, irregularly and contemptuously pretended to take the oath. Mr. Bradlaugh himself voted in the division, and walked out of the House when he saw that the division was against him. The motion of expulsion being eventually carried by a heavy majority, a new writ was moved for, and Mr. Bradlaugh was again triumphantly elected by the constituency of Northampton, though he was not allowed to take his seat during the session. The hon. member's political affairs had for a long time been the subject of legal proceedings, and it happened that about the time of his re-election at Northampton the Court of Appeal reversed a decision which had formerly been given in his favour. Considerable sympathy was pronounced for Mr. Bradlaugh by advanced Liberal associations in the large towns, and the hon. member frequently during the session addressed large and enthusiastic meetings, urging his friends to allow themselves no rest until the privileges of the electors, violated by the refusal of the House to pay heed to the choice of the Northampton constituency, were secured. A feeble re-echo of the excitement in the House of Commons was heard in the House of Lords consequent upon the introduction by the Earl of Redesdale of a Bill requiring every peer and member of Parliament before taking his seat to make a declaration of belief in an Almighty God. His avowed object was to prevent atheists from taking part in the legislation of the country; but the measure was opposed by such orthodox peers as the Earl of Shaftesbury and one or two bishops, and the Bill was dropped. A Bill introduced by the Duke of Argyll to amend the Parliamentary

Oaths Act, so as to permit those who objected to the oath to affirm, was lost on its second reading.

After Mr. Bradlaugh, on the first day of the session, the affairs of Ireland, as might be expected, occupied the lion's share of the proceedings. The first movement was by Mr. Gray, who raised a question of privilege, and proposed the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the circumstances under which Mr. Parnell and three other members of the House of Commons had been sent to Kilmainham Gaol under the provisions of the Protection of Persons and Property (Ireland) Act. The motion was rejected, and the debate on the Address proceeded, Mr. Marjoribanks having been selected as the mover and Mr. Firth as the seconder. The debate on the address was extended over six nights, the crucial point of argument being an amendment by Mr. P. J. Smythe declaring that the only efficacious remedy for the deplorable condition of Ireland was a re-adjustment of the political relations established between Great Britain and Ireland by the Act of Union. All the leading members of Parliament on both sides spoke upon this question, to which foreign affairs and questions affecting England and Scotland took but a secondary place. The Prime Minister, in an eloquent speech, defended the Commissioners engaged in administering the Land Act from the charges of incompetency and partiality which had been freely brought against them, and in indignant terms accused the Land League of having deliberately chosen the desperate course of unfurling a flag against all property; and he expressed his gratification that this "great conspiracy" had been confronted and defeated, that the payment of rent in Ireland was going on extensively, that the circle of intimidation had been narrowed, that the judicial system of the country had revived, and that the worst efforts made against the Land Act had been defeated. Most of the Irish members joined the Opposition in questioning this hopeful statement. Mr. Smythe's amendment having been rejected, another was moved by Mr. Justin McCarthy, declaring that the immediate abandonment of all coercive measures, and the establishment of constitutional government in Ireland, were essentially necessary for the peace and prosperity of the United Kingdom. In the debate upon this amendment Mr. Forster, the Chief Secretary, to whom the nickname of "Buckshot Forster" had been freely applied during his administration in Ireland by the followers of the Land League members, defended his policy arguing that he had no alternative in the course he had adopted, unless he had been prepared to allow the country to drift into a condition of excitement which might have led to a civil war. The

most notable speech in defence of the Land League and its President, Mr. Parnell, was delivered on the last day of the debate by Mr. Sexton, himself a released suspect. The address in reply to the Queen's Speech, was of course in the end voted, but three more days were spent in a discussion upon the report. This opportunity enabled hon. members who had other than Irish matters to bring before the House, to introduce the subjects they had at heart, and the discussion ranged over foreign policy, the water supply of London, military and naval matters, and various miscellaneous topics. The Attorney-General for Ireland, and Mr. Lowther, formerly Chief Secretary, took part in the discussion when it drifted back to Irish topics, but the House was evidently weary of the subject, and it was put aside for the time being by the adoption of the report.

The House of Lords, after disposing of the formalities incidental to the opening of Parliament, spent an unusually long evening some days later, in discussing the working of the Irish Land Act. The opportunity for this was afforded by the Earl of Donoughmore on the 17th of February, in moving the appointment of a select committee to inquire into the operation of the measure and its effect upon the condition of the country. The Government, however, through its Ministers in both Houses, strongly objected to this appointment, and a new element of excitement was introduced into political affairs by the imminence of a collision between the two Houses. One or two friendly efforts to reconcile the differences which had sprung up failed, and the Premier proposed and the House of Commons passed, a resolution which, it was insisted upon by the opponents of the Government, was one of censure upon the proceedings of the House of Lords. The peers nevertheless nominated their committee, which took evidence, though in direct antagonism to the wishes of the Government. This crisis was deemed so grave that the probabilities of a dissolution were much discussed, and resolutions supporting the Government in its protest against the conduct of the House of Lords, sent up from various parts of the country, proved that the excitement had extended beyond the immediate domain of Parliament. A novel proposition arose out of these early complications, Mr. Labouchere giving notice of a motion declaring that the House of Lords "is dangerous, useless, and ought to be abolished." The Speaker's attention was called to the verbal framing of this motion. Mr. Labouchere explained that the words were actually taken from a resolution submitted to the Long Parliament, but as it had been pointed out to him that the word "useless" might be offensive, he substituted, as a new form of expression, the words "unnecessary, obstructive, and dangerous."

The supporters of Mr. Parnell, and indeed all the Irish members sitting below the gangway on the Conservative side of the House, seized every possible opportunity of introducing the grievances of their country to the notice of Parliament. On one or two occasions more than fifty questions, the majority being Irish, were addressed to members of the Government at the opening of the Sitting, and it was computed by a statistician curious in such matters, that from the first day of the session to the end of March, 759 formal questions were asked in the House of Commons, of which the Home Rule section, led by Mr. McCarthy, had put 307. Mr. Redmond had asked 41, Mr. Healy 40, Mr. Biggar 28, and Mr. Sexton 25. This singular unofficial return did not include the questions asked without notice, which, throughout the whole of the Session, were unprecedentedly numerous.

While the Session was as yet young, Michael Davitt, described as of Portland Prison, was returned for Meath, in the place of Mr. A. M. Sullivan, who accepted the Chiltern Hundreds. At the earliest moment the law officer of the Crown moved a resolution declaring, that as Michael Davitt was a convicted felon who had not served out his sentence nor received the Queen's pardon, he was disqualified from sitting in Parliament. The learned gentleman produced the records of Davitt's conviction in 1870 for treason-felony and sentence of 15 years' penal servitude, and cited as precedents for the guidance of the House the elections under similar disability of O'Donovan Rossa in 1870, and John Mitchell in 1875. A new writ was accordingly issued, and a member who was legally qualified to sit was returned. A request that Messrs. Parnell, Dillon and O'Kelly should be permitted to leave prison and come to the House of Commons on parole to vote on an important division pending towards the end of March, gave rise to an animated and heated debate, during which the Premier said that some of the language employed might well prompt the inquiry as to who was responsible for the murders, rapine, mutilations, and other outrages committed in Ireland.

The necessity for framing new rules for the conduct of Parliamentary procedure had been largely insisted upon by members of Parliament during the recess, and on the opening night of the Session the Premier laid upon the table twelve rules applying to procedure and three to standing committees. An earnest desire was expressed by the Government to pass this important measure of internal reform without delay, but formidable opposition was manifested in the House and country against the first rule, which proposed what was thenceforth known as the Clôture. This resolu-

tion, to which much importance was rightly attached by both parties, was as follows :—

“That when it shall appear to Mr. Speaker, or to the Chairman of a Committee of the whole House, during any debate, to be the evident sense of the House, or of the Committee, that the question be now put, he may so inform the House; and if a motion be made, ‘That the question be now put,’ Mr. Speaker, or the Chairman, shall forthwith put such question; and if the same be decided in the affirmative, the question under discussion shall be put forthwith: provided that the question shall not be decided in the affirmative, if a division be taken, unless it shall appear to have been supported by more than two hundred members, or to have been opposed by less than forty members.”

It was late in March before the House was able, with undivided attention, to apply itself to this subject, and a strong opinion, not confined to one side of the House, was entertained in favour of some such principle as a two-thirds majority. A division, which was remarkable for the dimensions of the vote given and the rallying of more than one hundred members who were absent from London, was taken on an amendment moved by Mr. Marriott, and resulted in a majority for the Government. It may here be stated, to avoid further reference to the question of Parliamentary procedure, that though the subject was heard of again and again during the ordinary Session, and the necessity for internal Parliamentary reform made patent by the inability of the House to govern itself, the Government were unable to carry their proposals to a practical issue, and eventually an autumn sitting was perforce decided upon for its especial consideration.

The introduction of the Army Estimates at a quarter to one on the morning of the 14th March by Mr. Childers, the Minister for War, gave rise to a heated discussion, which at times assumed the nature of a personal attack upon the Premier by Lord Eustace Cecil, the Earl Percy, and other Opposition members, who objected to what was considered the unnecessary haste with which the first vote was submitted to the House. The explanation which was made by the Government, and which, on the subsidence of the storm, was accepted, was that there was a legal necessity for the introduction of the estimates on that particular night. The estimates, as introduced by Mr. Childers, were for £15,500,000. There had been a decrease of over a million sterling for South African expenses, but considerable increases, such as £313,000 for the re-armament of the Navy. The number of the regular forces voted was 132,905, being a decrease, as compared with the previous estimates, of 1,155 individuals. It was proposed to



maintain 72 battalions of Infantry of the Line at home, 19 in the Colonies, and 50 in India. The estimate showed an actual reduction of £563,000, as compared with the previous year, although the reduction of the number of the regular forces was little more than nominal. The changes indicated were of a purely incidental character. At that time the grand total of our military strength, of all branches of the service, was 563,828 individuals. In the course of his speech the Minister for War entered into careful comparisons with the object of tracing the growth of the Army and Navy expenditure as compared with the growth of population, the growth of the inland revenue duties, and the income-tax, per head of population respectively. The Naval Estimates were introduced on the 16th March by Mr. Trevelyan, Secretary to the Admiralty. He outshadowed an additional expenditure on the Navy of £80,000 during the coming year, and stated that the Admiralty had been able to devote £180,000 to the all important task of increasing the fleet. These estimates, both Naval and Military, in consequence of the war in which the country was engaged later in the year, had, as a subsequent chapter will show, to be supplemented by special votes.

The granting of a Charter to the British North Borneo Company, at a time when Parliament was not sitting, had been already condemned at an influential meeting held in London during February to discuss measures for the better conduct of our foreign and colonial policy. At this meeting, presided over by Mr. John Morley, and attended by a large number of members of Parliament, it was resolved that, in view of our frequent acts of aggression on barbarous and semi-civilised communities in contact with the British Empire at various points, leading to conflicts which Parliament and the nation have not sanctioned, it is desirable to form a League of all who wish, irrespective of party, to insist on a policy of non-aggression. A special resolution was also passed condemning the North Borneo Company's Charter. This subject, on the 17th of March, was brought before the House of Commons on the motion to go into Supply. The Charter granted to the North Borneo Company was described by Mr. Gorst as a piece of safe and cheap filibustering, and an attempt to extend British territory, in an irresponsible way, under the Charter of a trading company. An address was moved praying Her Majesty to revoke or alter so much of the Charter as gave or implied sanction to the maintenance of slavery. It was stated that the rights of the natives had never been consulted, and that the arrangements made must lead to future wars and aggressions; and it was insisted that the Charter was diametrically opposed to

former declarations of nearly every Minister then occupying the Treasury bench. During the debate, the singularity was pointed out of the circumstance that the attack on the Government had been to a great extent carried on from the Ministerial benches, and its defence chiefly undertaken by political opponents. The question, as a matter of fact, was not of a party character, and the defence of the Government was that the company referred to was already in existence on the spot, and had acquired rights, with which the British Government could not interfere, before the Charter was granted. It was not denied that slavery existed, but the doctrine laid down by Lord Russell was quoted—namely, that we had no right suddenly to abolish it, but to mitigate it and gradually bring it to an end.

Following out the intimation in the Royal Speech with respect to the forthcoming marriage of the Duke of Albany, a royal message was sent in due course to the Commons asking for such a provision for Prince Leopold as might be suitable for the dignity of the Crown. The usual resolutions were accordingly proposed by the Premier providing for an addition of £10,000 a year to the annuity enjoyed by His Royal Highness, and an annual sum of £6,000 to the Princess in case she should survive her husband. These resolutions did not pass without opposition, and it was intimated by Mr. Labouchere that if the Liberal party had been in opposition several members of the Government, if they were true to their former principles, must have opposed the grant. Mr. Labouchere, who led the objecting party, argued that it had not been shown that the civil list was inadequate for the maintenance of the Queen's children; that the marriage had no national object; and that, for economical reasons, it was undesirable to make the grant. Mr. Broadhurst, one of the representatives of the working classes, said the vote was extravagant and unpopular. Speeches were made by Mr. Storey and Mr. Healy upon the general question of grants to the royal family, which were universally denounced for their extreme character. The resolutions were, of course, carried (there being, however, forty-five dissentients) and the necessary Bill was brought in and passed to give effect to them.

During the first two months of the Session private members had but scanty opportunity of calling attention to matters upon which they desired legislation. On the 21st of March, however, Mr. Arthur Arnold found an opportunity for submitting two resolutions relating to parliamentary reform. The first declared that, as soon as the state of public business admitted, uniformity of franchise should be established throughout the United Kingdom

similar in principle to that established in the boroughs. The second resolution affirmed the desirability of securing a more equitable representation of the opinions of the electoral body. According to the hon. member's estimate, an extension of household suffrage such as he advocated would bring an addition of 1,344,000 to the electorate of England and Wales, of 500,000 to the electorate of Ireland, and of 150,000 to the electorate of Scotland. His second resolution, dealing with the redistribution of seats, would give a scheme under which each constituency would consist of about 50,000 electors. England and Wales under the new conditions would have 484 members, Ireland 96, and Scotland 69. The Premier, in a speech upon the resolutions, declared himself in favour of parliamentary reform, and recognised the necessity of placing it high upon the list of questions to be dealt with; but he was unable to promise that the Government, with the vast array of work to be dealt with, could undertake it. The adjournment of the debate prevented the taking of action upon the matter.

The sympathy expressed in England for the Jews who had been driven out of Russia by persecutions, and who had been since the opening of Parliament passed through England in considerable numbers *en route* to America, found full expression on the 3rd of March in a debate initiated by the Baron de Worms, who, by a resolution, which was subsequently withdrawn, called on the Government, either in concert with other powers or alone, to use its good offices with Russia to prevent the recurrence of similar acts of violence. The balance of opinion amongst the members who addressed the House seemed to be that such a course must lead to mischief by creating a feeling of offended nationality, and that it would injure rather than benefit the Jews themselves. Mr. Serjeant Simon stated that the Jewish community deprecated the course taken by Baron de Worms.

A trifling change was introduced into the routine of the House of Lords on the 24th of March, when Lord Camperdown proposed that public business in the Upper Chamber should commence at four instead of five o'clock, as heretofore. The matter was debated, with the result that the House of Lords, after the Easter vacation, met at a quarter-past four instead of the time-honoured hour of five o'clock.

## CHAPTER III.

[APRIL, MAY, JUNE.]

PREVIOUS to the adjournment of the House of Commons on the 4th of April for the Easter recess, the Prime Minister, in the course of one of his speeches in Parliament, described the situation in Ireland as being not a political, but a social revolution. It had become more and more apparent to many observing politicians that the Land Act did not succeed in the measure anticipated in allaying discontent, or in checking the crimes of violence which had been rife in the country. The catalogue of the latter continued with frightful regularity. On the 2nd of April, between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, Mr. Smythe, a West Meath landowner, was returning from church. In the carriage with him were two ladies—his sister-in-law, Mrs. Henry Smythe, and Lady Harriet Monk. As the carriage passed along the highway, a volley was fired from a plantation, and Mrs. Smythe was killed instantaneously. The assassins, who were three in number, had their faces blackened. They had stepped to the edge of the plantation as the carriage passed by, fired their guns point-blank into it, and run away. Mr. Smythe, after the tragedy, wrote to Mr. Gladstone laying the guilt of the deed of blood at his door, "supported as you are," he said, "in that part of your policy, by the 'No Rent' M.P.'s., their press, and some Irish bishops." Mr. Gladstone, in reply, expressed his heartfelt sympathy with Mr. Smythe, but declined to enter into the charge made in his letter. To his tenants Mr. Smythe wrote a very severe letter. He said: "Most of you, by your silence, assent to the deed of blood, and many of you only regret that one who has passed his long life, and spent his income among you, was not the victim." A day or two previously to this murder, Mr. Herbert, a magistrate in Tralee, was killed while returning from Castleisland Petty Sessions by ruffians who were lying in ambush by the side of the road. Three shots were fired, each of which took effect. Mr. Herbert had given offence by stating that the police ought to have used buck-shot upon a riotous mob, and being in other ways an object of hatred he always carried a loaded revolver, and had frequently declared in public that if attacked he would sell his life dearly. At Limerick a bomb was exploded on a window-sill at the police barracks.

Mr. Parnell, who had been an inmate of Kilmainham Prison

since October, was released on parole on the 10th of April, in order that he might attend the funeral of a relative in Paris. The hon. member was set at liberty on giving a verbal promise not to take part in any political matters or demonstrations. A desire was expressed by his friends to ceremoniously receive him in London, but the hon. member declined any demonstration of welcome, and evaded the well-meant intentions of his friends by leaving his train at Willesden Junction. The hon. member, true to his promise, returned to Kilmainham at the expiration of his parole. Towards the end of April several suspects were released from Naas, Dundalk and Kilmainham, and it was put forward as a sign of improvement in the country that the number of suspects released was far greater than the number of new arrests. It appeared, however, from the April returns that during the quarter ended March 31st there were 1,317 families and 7,020 persons evicted in Ireland. Of these 78 persons were re-admitted as tenants and 3,050 as caretakers under the new Act. The evictions had been:—in Ulster, 440 families; Connaught, 354; Munster, 335; Leinster, 188.

Events marched with more rapid strides when the House had settled down to business after the Easter recess. On the 20th of April an animated debate was raised in the House of Commons on the condition of Ireland and the policy of the Government. It arose out of a question put by Mr. Sexton in reference to the action of Mr. Clifford Lloyd in preventing the erection of huts for the reception of evicted tenants, and the circular issued by the head of police in County Clare, in which the police were told that if a man should accidentally commit an error in shooting any person on suspicion of that person being about to commit murder, the production of the circular would exonerate him. This circular was denounced by Mr. Sexton as gross and scandalous, barbarous, and an incitement to murder. Mr. Clifford Lloyd, who had been an object of intense hatred on the part of Land Leaguers in Ireland, was defended by Mr. Forster, who said he knew nothing about the circular, but its practical effect had been to protect Mr. Clifford Lloyd from cowardly ruffians who shot at men from behind hedges, but would run no risks. Towards the close of the debate Mr. Redmond, for using offensive expressions towards Mr. Forster, was suspended for the remainder of the sitting. On May 2nd it was announced by the Prime Minister in the House of Commons and by Lord Granville in the House of Lords that Earl Cowper had resigned the Lord-Lieutenancy of Ireland; that Mr. Forster had left the Cabinet and resigned the Chief Secretaryship of Ire-

land, and that the three imprisoned members of Parliament, Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon and Mr. O'Kelly, were released from Kilmainham. The resignation of the Viceroy and the Chief Secretary was prompted by their inability to agree with the Cabinet in their new policy, as foreshadowed in the release of these members. The Government had, in fact, resolved upon a new departure in Ireland, and its initiation was marked by the appointment of the Earl of Spencer as Lord-Lieutenant, and the announcement that Ministers would not ask for a renewal of the Coercion Acts. In the course of a few days, Michael Davitt was released from Portland Prison on ticket-of-leave. Mr. Forster was succeeded by Lord Frederick Cavendish, who was to hold the office without a seat in the Cabinet. The oft-repeated accusation that the release of the prisoners was due to a "treaty" between them and the Premier was denied.

It was hoped by all and believed by many that the change of policy would herald peace in Ireland, and the new Lord-Lieutenant and his Chief Secretary were represented as bearing the olive branch to that distracted country. But on the very day of Lord Spencer's installation a crime was committed, surpassing in its hideous savagery all that had previously stained the land. This was on Saturday the 6th May. The Lord-Lieutenant had been duly installed into his high and responsible office, and Lord Frederick Cavendish, and Mr. Burke, the permanent Under-Secretary, had attended the ceremony. Having an engagement to dine at the Viceregal Lodge, they were walking in a frequented part of Phoenix Park at half-past seven o'clock in the evening, when they were set upon by four men and stabbed to death. Citizens were strolling in the park at the time, and what seemed to them a scuffle was actually noticed by many. It was never clearly known what manner of men the murderers were, or how they effected their escape, but the balance of testimony represented them as ruffians of the Irish-American type, who drove away from their bloody deed in an ordinary Irish car. Several persons who were in the park saw, as they supposed, a group of men wrestling, and one boy described how he saw two men fall to the ground, while four others jumped on a car and drove rapidly away. The sorrowful fact that admitted of no speculation was that Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke were a few minutes afterwards discovered lying in the centre of the carriage-way in pools of blood. They had been barbarously stabbed, apparently with bowie knives, in several places. The utmost consternation was felt in England, and the telegraphed news of the assassination was throughout Sunday the absorbing topic of conversation. The Irish Parliamentary Party issued a

manifesto signed by Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, and Davitt, denouncing the horrible deed, and observing that on the eve of what seemed a bright future for their country that evil destiny which had apparently pursued them for centuries had struck another blow at their hopes. Far from showing any sympathy with the crime, the document concluded with the following words: "We feel that no act has ever been perpetrated in our country during the exciting struggles for social and political rights of the past fifty years that has so stained the name of hospitable Ireland as this cowardly and unprovoked assassination of a friendly stranger, and that until the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke are brought to justice that stain will sully our country's name." At the weekly meeting of the Land League members a resolution expressing the grief and horror with which they had heard of the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke was passed. All classes in Ireland were swift to denounce the crime. The Prime Minister in Parliament expressed the opinion that the object of the murders was to rouse indignant passions, and embitter the relations between Great Britain and Ireland. Meetings were held in all parts of Great Britain expressing horror at the assassinations, and calling on the Government to take measures to put an end to the crimes of violence which had culminated in this atrocious deed. A resolution was passed by the Corporation of Dublin expressing the opinion that until the perpetrators of the crime were brought to justice all Irishmen must feel dishonoured. Monster gatherings were held in the large cities, and subscription lists were opened to supplement the reward offered by the Government for the detection of the criminals. The offer of a profuse reward, however, failed to lead to the discovery of the assassins, or of the carman who enabled them to escape. The police roused themselves, and every effort was made to trace the murderers and prevent their leaving the country, but they continued to evade detection. Numbers of men were apprehended at the seaports, to be subsequently set at liberty. A prevalent belief remained both in Ireland and England that the work had been done by assassins who represented none but themselves.\* Hundreds of

\* In July, intelligence having been telegraphed to England that a man named Westgate had given himself up in a South American port, confessing to these murders, the Home Secretary was asked in the House of Commons by Mr. McCoan whether official information had been received of the arrest of one of the Phoenix Park assassins. Sir W. Harcourt declined to furnish information, and expressed his regret that publicity had been given to such a rumour; adding that the insatiable indiscretion manifested in such matters tended to defeat the detection of crime. The man was held in custody in

members of Parliament attended the funeral of Lord Frederick Cavendish, who was buried in the family burying-ground at Edensor, in Chatsworth Park. For seventeen years the noble lord had represented the northern division of the West Riding, and he was the most amiable and inoffensive of men. Wreaths of choice flowers, sent by all ranks, from the Queen to the school-children of Newport Market, were heaped upon his coffin, and a wealth of sympathy was tendered by the community to the widow and the Duke of Devonshire and his family in their bereavement. Mr. G. O. Trevelyan, M.P., who had been Secretary to the Admiralty, was appointed to succeed the Chief Secretary, while Mr. R. G. C. Hamilton was appointed permanent Under-Secretary, in the place of Mr. Burke, upon whose family the Government settled a pension. Colonel Brackenbury at the same time succeeded Colonel Hillier as Inspector-General of the Royal Constabulary.

The promise of legislation with regard to arrears of rent, the conciliatory measures respecting the prisoners detained under the Protection Act, and the release of those who were not believed to be associated with the actual commission of crime, were thought to have produced some effect upon the people at large, but they did not prevent the commission of another brutal crime on the 8th June, when Mr. Walter Bourke, a magistrate and landowner, returning home from Gort, and his military escort—a trooper of the Royal Dragoon Guards—were shot at from behind a wall, and killed on the spot. Nor did the month close without further horrors. On the 29th June the Home Secretary, in reply to a question in the House of Commons, was forced to confess that the rumour of another deplorable crime in Ireland was unfortunately too well founded, for he had received a telegram to the effect that Mr. John Henry Blake, the agent of the Marquis of Clanricarde, and Mr. Keene, his steward, had been shot that day at a quarter past eleven, within half a mile of Lough Rea. The wall had been loopholed for the purpose, and the murders had been most deliberately arranged. It was a significant fact that the rifles found near the spot where Mr. Bourke and Corporal Wallace, his escort, were murdered, were marked with the shamrock, in the same manner as a great stock of weapons previously seized in London.

The House of Commons met on the 17th of April after the

Jamaica pending his shipment home. It was not, however, generally believed that the self-accused criminal had any connection with the murders.



Easter holidays. The Education Estimates were introduced by Mr. Mundella, Vice-President of the Committee of Council, on the 3rd of April. It appeared from his statement that the sum required for education in England and Wales for the forthcoming year was £2,749,863. This was an increase on the expenditure of the previous year of £111,500. In no previous year had the real progress made in the cause of education been more solid. The quality of education had improved, as the increase in the number of passes in each class showed, and there was also a large increase in the accommodation, in the number of children on the registers, in the average attendance, and in the number presented for examination. It was admitted, nevertheless, that considering the increase in the population, there was a considerable margin for improvement. The number of children who left school for labour during the previous year was above 7,000 per week, whilst the number entering the schools weekly was no fewer than 10,000. This excess had been going on year by year for ten years. The new Education Code, as to which considerable alarm had been entertained by some of the advocates of the voluntary system, was presented to Parliament on the 6th of March. It was admitted, on the whole, to be a substantial improvement, and its author, Mr. Mundella, was thanked by the friends of popular education for the benefits it would bestow upon the cause of education. In the House of Lords, however, on May 19, Lord Norton moved to refer the Education Code to a Committee to consider whether it might not be possible more effectually to carry out its professed intention of simplifying the Code, of removing defects in the distribution of grants, and of preventing the perpetual changes so much complained of by the teachers. The noble lord argued that an undue amount of the money raised for our National Schools was expended on higher-class education. Lord Carlingford, on behalf of the department, differed from Lord Norton's conclusions. Of the four millions of scholars in the schools only 45,000 were above the age of 14, and the number who passed through the ordinary standard was only 9,500. The Duke of Richmond and Gordon objected also to the appointment of a Committee, and said that the New Code, of which he generally approved, had been prepared with great care. The motion was withdrawn.

The Budget was introduced by Mr. Gladstone on the 24th of April. The general financial situation was described as one of growing expenditure and sluggish revenue. The expenditure of the previous year, estimated at £86,190,000, had actually been £718,000 less. The revenue having been £85,822,000, left a

surplus of £350,000. While most of the revenue from taxes, with the exception of the income tax, had fallen under the estimate, the revenue from other sources had risen from £13,890,000 to £14,365,000, and the total actual revenue exceeded the estimate by £722,000. There was no intention to make further proposals in regard to silver plate. The death duties had produced £305,000, instead of £390,000, owing to the exceptional mildness of the winter. The beer duty had yielded £92,000 less than the average yield during six years of the malt tax, which it succeeded. This diminution was not attributed to the beer duty being too high, but partly to the diminished wages of the people, partly to an improvement in their habits, and partly to the increase of coffee houses. Some interesting statistics were given as to the decline in the drink revenue, as, for example, that the total alcoholic revenue which in 1875 had increased to £31,000,000 from £23,000,000 in 1867-8, had fallen back in 1881 to £28,444,000, whilst wine duties had fallen from £171,000 in 1874 to £136,000 in 1881. In 1867  $37\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of revenue came from alcohol; in 1874 the proportion had risen to 51 per cent., but in 1881 it had sunk to  $46\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. The estimated expenditure of the coming year was:—Charges for debt of all kinds, £31,415,000; army, £15,458,000; home charges for Indian army, £1,100,000; grant in aid of the Afghan war, £500,000; navy, £10,484,000; civil service, £16,503,000; customs and inland revenue, about £2,901,000; post-office, £3,743,000; telegraphic service, £1,435,298; packet service, £710,702; total, about £84,250,000. A few extra items made this grand total £84,630,000. The increased cost of governing Ireland stood at £430,000. The revenue was estimated at £84,445,000, but there were extraordinary items which brought the estimated total revenue up to £84,935,000, leaving a surplus of £305,000.\* Mr. Gladstone pointed out that but for pledges with regard to relief of local taxation, and especially with reference to highway rates, it would be possible to do without new taxation, but as the Government would not be able to introduce a County Government Bill, as was hoped, it was proposed to ask the House for some £250,000 to enable them to meet their promise with respect to highway rates. It was thought that the most convenient way of doing this would be a moderate addition to the carriage duty. The proposal was, therefore, to increase the two-guinea duty upon four-wheeled carriages to three guineas, and the fifteen-shilling

\* The Expedition to Egypt rendered it necessary, later in the session, as will be seen by reference to a subsequent chapter, to revise these propositions.

duty on two-wheeled carriages to twenty-one shillings. This would produce £247,000.

An amendment to the Irish Land Act was brought forward by Mr. Redmond in a Bill, the second reading of which was moved on the 26th of April. The Bill was presented by him as the only mode by which, in the opinion of the Irish Parliamentary Party, peace and order could be restored to Ireland and the final solution of the land question secured. The tone in which the hon. member introduced this Bill was described by the Prime Minister as moderate and practical, whilst the measure itself was admitted to be an authentic expression of the desire of the Parnellite party to make the working of the Land Act an effectual security for the peace of the country. The Government, however, did not support the second reading, basing their action upon the opinions expressed when they opposed the appointment of the Lords' Committee, viz., that the tenure clauses of the Land Act ought not to be reopened and disturbed. The remarks made by the Prime Minister, and the statements given towards the close of the debate by Mr. Forster, indicated that the Government meant at no distant date to deal with the question of arrears, and, in view of this, the tragedy referred to on a previous page brought about, as might be supposed, a complete alteration in the ministerial programme. The immediate adjournment of the House was moved when it met on the Monday following the murders of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The Prime Minister described the crime as unparalleled in its blackness and for the horror which it had excited throughout the country. He announced that the arrangements of the Government would now have to be reconsidered, and to some extent recast by the introduction of a Bill for the Repression of Crime, which would be followed by an Arrears Bill.

The Crime Prevention Bill was introduced by the Home Secretary on Thursday, the 11th of May. Attributing the evil to be remedied to secret societies and unlawful combinations, and to the notorious state of terrorism which prevented juries from doing their duty, the Home Secretary stated that the Government had come to the conclusion that it was necessary, for certain classes of cases, and on certain occasions, to create special tribunals to be composed of the judges of the superior courts; and whenever the Lord Lieutenant was of opinion that an impartial trial could not be had for treason, murder, attempts to kill, crimes of aggravated violence, and attacks on dwelling-houses, he would be empowered to appoint a special commission of three judges, who would sit without juries and decide questions of law and

fact, their judgments to be unanimous, and an appeal to be allowed to the Court for Criminal Cases Reserved. The Bill proposed that in proclaimed districts the police should have power to search at any time for the apparatus of crime, and to arrest persons unable to give an account of themselves. It was proposed to revive the Alien Act, giving power to arrest strangers and to remove persons considered to be dangerous to public safety. Summary punishment would be allowed for incitement to crime, membership of secret societies, aggravated assaults on the police and process servers, and intimidation. Control was to be exercised over newspapers, and the Lord Lieutenant empowered to deal specially with unlawful assemblies. Powers were to be given to carry on inquiries, to compel the attendance of witnesses, to appoint additional police at the cost of the district, and to levy compensation on the district for murders and maiming. The duration of this Act, which was admitted to be of the most drastic character, but which caused sharp attack and ridicule of the Government for their alleged abrogation of the "Force no Remedy" motto, was to be three years. Leave to introduce the Bill was given by 327 to 22 votes, and the second reading was carried by 383 to 45 votes. An amendment was proposed by Mr. Cowen, the member for Newcastle, declaring that while the House was desirous of aiding Her Majesty's Government in any measure which it could see to be necessary for the prevention, detection, and punishment of crime, it disapproved of restrictions being imposed on the free expression of public opinion in Ireland; but this was rejected by 344 to 47 votes. The consideration of the clauses of the Bill in Committee occupied the House during portions of twenty-five sittings. On the twenty-second night of Committee only sixteen out of thirty clauses had been disposed of, and the Prime Minister announced that it would be necessary to prolong the next sitting in order to make progress with the measure. On Thursday, the 30th of June, accordingly, clause 17, upon which the most prolonged discussion centred, was proceeded with, and the House sat far into the following day. Many amendments were moved, and shortly after eight o'clock on Saturday morning, the sitting having been throughout the night extremely turbulent, the Chairman of Committees, Dr. Lyon Playfair, suspended Mr. Parnell and fifteen other Irish members for systematic obstruction. A most disorderly scene was the result. Mr. O'Donnell, who was one of the suspended, protested that he had not been in the House during the night, and that the proceeding of the Chairman was, so far as he was concerned, an infamy. For this insult to the chair,

Mr. O'Donnell was afterwards suspended for fourteen days. The House continued sitting throughout Saturday, and in the afternoon of that day nine other Irish members were suspended. The sitting, which was terminated at eight o'clock in the evening, lasted thirty hours, and all the clauses, with the exception of some new proposals and others that were formally postponed, were carried.

Four days after the introduction of the Crime Prevention Bill, viz., on Monday, the 15th of May, Mr. Gladstone brought in a Bill relating to Arrears of Rent in Ireland. This was, broadly speaking, the third section of the Government policy with regard to Ireland. The first was the release of such suspects as were not believed to be connected with crime, and the second was the Crime Prevention Bill described in the preceding paragraph. The Arrears Bill now introduced imposed new duties on the Land Commission, which tribunal, it was now stated, was disposing of cases at the rate of 900 a week. Compulsion and Gift were, Mr. Gladstone explained, the leading principles of the Bill. Application might be made by either landlord or tenant; the Bill was to be limited to tenancies of £30, Griffiths' valuation; and required that the tenant should have paid the year's rent from November, 1880, to November, 1881. The tenant must also have proved before a competent tribunal his inability to pay further. The primary condition—payment of one year's rent—being fulfilled by the tenant, the State would advance a sum not greater than one year's rent, or half the arrears due. The advance would be a pure gift. When the tenant had paid the year's rent, as required, and the State had made its contribution, the rest of the arrears would be cancelled. Tenants evicted up to a certain date were to have the benefit of the Bill, and applications must be lodged before June 30th, 1883. The funds required to put the Act in operation would be taken in the first instance from the Church Surplus Fund, and then from the Consolidated Fund. The whole amount of arrears which required to be provided for were estimated at between a million and a half and two millions. The Leader of the Opposition for the time reserved his opinion on the merits of the Bill, and expressed the opinion that Mr. Redmond's name should be on its back. On the motion for the second reading several members who in the main were in favour of the Bill, advocated the principle of loan rather than that of gift, and an amendment by Mr. Selater Booth declaring that it was inexpedient to charge the Consolidated Fund with any payment except by way of loan in respect to arrears of rent was negatived by 296 to 181 votes. The second reading was carried by a majority of 269 against 107. On the motion to go into Committee, Mr. Chaplin submitted an amendment the effect

of which was to pledge the House to an expression of opinion that, while willing in case of emergency to grant money from public funds for purposes which it believed were for the best interests of Ireland, it declined to proceed with a measure imposing taxes for objects which must tend to demoralise the people of the country. This amendment was rejected, the votes being 283 to 208. The discussion in Committee extended over seven nights. It need scarcely be pointed out that the Crime Prevention Bill and the Arrears Bill were considered as far as possible side by side, the Prime Minister having succeeded in passing a resolution that these measures should have precedence over other business. In their salient principles, both Bills were sent to the House of Lords as introduced by the Government. Two important additions were made to the Arrears Bill by new clauses giving relief by loan, and voluntary agreement to tenants between £30 and £50 valuation, and establishing grants to Boards of Guardians in aid of emigration.

The troubles brewing in Egypt were foreshadowed for the first time in Parliament on Monday, the 15th of May, when Earl Granville, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, made a statement in the House of Lords as to the policy of Her Majesty's Government. On this occasion his lordship stated that the Governments of France and England had thought it advisable that three ships of the French and three of the English fleet should sail to Alexandria; also that there was a perfect understanding between the two countries as to the manner of dealing with certain contingencies, which it was hoped would not arise. His lordship expressed more than a hope that peace and prosperity would be established without the employment of force. In the House of Commons, in reply to a question by Sir Stafford Northcote, Sir Charles Dilke, Political Secretary at the Foreign Office, entered more fully into the details of the instructions which had been addressed to the English and French agents in Egypt. The right hon. baronet echoed the statement made by his chief in the Upper House that the English and French Governments were in absolute accord. On Tuesday, the 23rd of May, the Government was again questioned in the House of Commons, Sir Wilfrid Lawson eliciting from Sir Charles Dilke the information that the fleet had been sent to Alexandria to protect the lives and property of British subjects, with the hope that its presence would help to maintain the *status quo*. At a subsequent sitting Sir Wilfrid Lawson returned to the subject, and a considerable time was occupied in discussing the policy of an armed intervention in Egypt. Sir Charles Dilke deprecated a

discussion at that time as being contrary to public interest, and declined to inform Mr. Ashmead Bartlett whether the Porte had protested. The Ultimatum which had been published in the morning papers being admitted to be in the main authentic, the Leader of the Opposition said it was a very serious document, and the House had a right to ask for further information or explanation. In answer to this Sir Charles Dilke declared that it was impossible to make further statements until the assent of foreign Powers had been obtained, nor, until the affair had advanced further, was it possible to lay papers upon the table. When the motion for adjournment over the Whitsuntide recess was made, some questions were asked necessitating a reply from the Prime Minister, who said it was neither possible nor politic to give the assurance which had been asked for by Sir Wilfrid Lawson that no warlike steps should be taken until the House had been consulted; and the right hon. gentleman protested that the discussion of Egyptian affairs at that moment could do nothing but mischief. On the 1st of June full ministerial statements were made in both Houses, Lord Granville, in reply to a question by Lord Salisbury, admitting that the state of affairs in Egypt was very serious, and that Arabi, though not by the will of the people, was *de facto* ruler of the country. A similar statement was made in the House of Commons in reply to Sir Richard Cross, who put several questions to the Prime Minister. Mr. Gladstone said it would not be desirable to say more than had been said as to the steps which the Government contemplated, until the meeting of the projected Conference at Constantinople. The Premier, however, stated that Arabi appeared to have thrown off the mask, and would probably proceed to depose, or pretend to depose, the Khedive; and he further added, amid much cheering, that the Government considered themselves pledged to the Khedive. With the development of complications in Egypt, questions in the House became more frequent, but the Government maintained a studied and avowed reticence. The outbreak in Alexandria, however, led to a persistent questioning on the part of many members, and on the 14th of June Sir H. D. Wolff moved the adjournment of the House, in order to review the dealings of the Government with the Porte. The Prime Minister in his reply stated that the ends of the Government were the maintenance of all established rights in Egypt, and these were the rights of the Sultan, the Khedive, and the people. Henceforth the progress of Egyptian difficulties to a greater or less extent occupied the attention of Parliament daily.

The House of Lords, owing to the prolonged discussions in the

House of Commons on the various measures to which we have referred, had been favoured up to the end of June with light occupation and short sittings, the prominent exception being the long debate on the appointment of a Committee to inquire into the working of the Land Act at the commencement of the session. On the 12th of June the second reading of the Marriage with a Deceased Wife's Sister Bill attracted a full House, the Prince of Wales (who in a former Session had delivered a speech in favour of the measure), the Duke of Edinburgh, the Duke of Albany, and the Duke of Cambridge, being present. The second reading was moved by Lord Dalhousie, opposed by Lord Balfour, who moved the rejection of the Bill, supported by Lord Waterford, and opposed by the Bishop of Peterborough. The Bill was rejected but by a diminished majority as compared with previous years. The Prince of Wales and his brothers voted for the second reading.

The period with which this portion of the History of the Year deals, blotted and blackened as it was with crimes in one part of the British Islands, was, on the whole, mercifully free from the wholesale loss of life by accidents on land and sea which sometimes specially saddens our domestic annals. The list of disasters by sea, for example, furnished no addition to the notable shipwrecks of history, albeit during the heavy gales the catalogue of losses by minor shipwrecks was lamentably long. The most disastrous accident was by collision. On the night of the 1st April the royal mail steamer *Douro* was steering north-north-east, in fine weather, with a heavy rolling sea, across the Bay of Biscay. The chief officer was on the bridge in charge, and the watch regularly arranged. During a heavy roll to port, however, the *Douro* was struck by the Spanish steamer *Yrurac Bat*, on the starboard quarter, and both vessels were so damaged that they sank within a short time of the collision. There were 135 persons on board the *Douro*, but as the English ship *Hidalgo* rendered assistance, only five passengers and eighteen of the crew perished. Seven of the vessel's boats were got out and safely lowered; the eighth was also lowered, but, as is so often the case in these accidents, was stove in immediately.

A shipwreck of what may be termed a lesser degree, but which was remarkable for the extreme hardships suffered by the survivors, occurred during the January gales. Intelligence of the disaster did not reach this country till the month of April, when the captain and three of the survivors of the schooner *Richard Wardbrick* were landed at Plymouth. Their little vessel had left



Runcorn on the 25th of January with coals for Plymouth, and being compelled by stress of weather to beat about for some time in St. George's Channel, took shelter in a neighbouring port. She then got to sea again about the time that the gales redoubled in force, and she was driven upon the Seven Stones Rock. The crew, consisting of five men, had just sufficient time to get into the boat before the schooner foundered. They had no food nor drink of any kind, and from Monday until the following Friday they were tossed about upon the open sea, suffering excruciating privations. One of the men on the second day was attacked with the dreadful torments of thirst, intensified by drinking salt water. On the following day, according to the inevitable result of such indulgence, he became delirious, and jumped overboard, but was rescued by his starving companions. Later in the same day the waves drifted a keg of salt butter towards the men, and this being ravenously attacked, their sufferings became maddening. The man who had previously jumped overboard now attempted to stab the skipper, but was held down by main force. He died in the quietude of exhaustion during the third night. It was almost miraculous that the other men survived, as they did, to be picked up on the Friday by an Austrian barque bound for Jamaica. In this vessel they were taken westward, until they met a mail steamer, by which they were brought on to Plymouth.

Of the spring gales none equalled in its destructive qualities that of the 29th of April. It raged during the afternoon and evening, unroofing houses and toppling over chimneys in London. By the *débris* levelled before it a child was killed at Rotherhithe, a man on Shooter's Hill, a woman at Southsea, and a boy at Portsmouth. The famous avenue of chestnut-trees in Bushey Park, just then putting forth its magnificent show of blossom, was blighted for the season, and the track of the storm was marked by a remarkable blasting of young foliage, the effects of which were apparent for months. Boats were overturned at Portsmouth, two men drowned in Portsmouth harbour, two fishermen in Milford Haven. Vessels were driven ashore on the coast of Devon and Dorset, and the barque *Mallard*, a timber ship, of New Brunswick, was wrecked on St. Alban's Head. The vessel had become water-logged, and the master and four men were lost.

Although the winter had been, as elsewhere pointed out, extremely mild, and work of all kinds, if not plentiful, still not uncommonly slack, much distress seemed to exist as the spring advanced amongst some portions of the industrial classes. Their wants found united utterance at a large meeting of unemployed persons held on the 31st March in Hyde Park. Practical resolu-

tions were carried, one praying the Lord Mayor at once to take the necessary steps to raise a fund to forward to Canada or elsewhere men who were able and willing to emigrate. A second resolution called upon the clergy of all denominations to assist in the cause. At this meeting it was announced that 350 heads of families, representing capital to the amount of over £100,000, were leaving Liverpool for Manitoba, for the purpose of settling in the North-West Territory, and that 500 more were ready to leave within a fortnight. Lord Mayor Ellis, in response to this appeal, promptly convened a meeting at the Mansion House, for the purpose of raising a fund to assist a selected number of unemployed working men to emigrate to Canada; and during the proceedings Sir A. Galt said that the Canadian Government had offered to contribute £1 for each adult of 200 families, for whom the Canadian and Pacific Railway Company had offered to find employment. As at least £6,000 was necessary to forward these 200 families to a new home, a Committee was formed and a subscription opened. His Excellency the Marquis of Lorne, Governor-General of the Dominion, during his stay in England had lost no opportunity of advocating the claims of Canada, especially Manitoba, as a field for emigration, and Her Royal Highness the Marchioness had earnestly assisted in the same work. The issue, however, of the movement organised at the Hyde Park convention was that the Lord Mayor, a few weeks later, announced to the Committee of the Mansion House Emigration Fund that, although every effort had been made, the response to the appeal had not been what he expected, the subscriptions amounting to only £109, or sufficient to emigrate about three families out of the 200 for whom help was asked.

What may be termed a prize-fighting epidemic threatened in the summer months to revive in the United Kingdom a long-abolished disgrace. The most surprising illustration of the revival was unfolded in certain criminal proceedings initiated at the Bow Street police court. Ten men were here charged with aiding and abetting in a prize-fight at St. Andrew's Hall, Tavistock Place, a building which had recently been used by Archdeacon Dunbar as a place of worship. The once sacred edifice was filled with a motley assemblage of individuals, who had ostensibly met by ticket to witness an assault of arms. The allegation of the police was that in a ring formed in the familiar manner amongst prize-fighters, with all the accompaniments of bottles of water, sponges, umpire, and seconds, a regular prize-fight took place as one of the "events" on the programme, the only

difference between the contest and the brutal encounters which were years ago prohibited by law being that the men wore gloves. There was hard swearing on both sides as to whether these were ordinary gloves or gloves used in boxing. The prisoners were remanded from time to time, their counsel and witnesses insisting that the disturbance which entered into the charge against them was caused by the unwarranted interference of the police. The Bow Street magistrates sent the case for trial, and some of the defendants were ultimately sentenced to imprisonment. Other fights took place without any of the mitigating circumstances which led many persons to sympathise with the individuals upon whom the police had raided in St. Andrew's Hall, and, being caught in the act, the principals and abettors were severely punished. At Sidcup and Woodford deliberately planned prize-fights occurred, uninterrupted by the police. About the same period public attention was called to gangs of ruffians infesting the Thames Embankment and the approaches to the river, and so alarming were the tales told of assaults, robberies, and probable murders, that a return was called for in Parliament of the number of deaths by drowning in the Thames. Several gangs of London desperadoes were broken up by the activity of the police, and this epidemic, like that of prize-fighting, was fortunately stamped out.

The Easter holidays of 1882 were favoured with fine weather, and the forward state of the spring consequent on the mild winter tempted unprecedented numbers of excursionists to move about the country. In the rural districts vegetation, in wood, hedge, garden, and field, was greatly in advance of the average April season, and naturalists were able to record abnormally early appearances of spring flowers, birds, and insects. The great event of the Easter holidays now, as in previous years, was the volunteer review, which was held at Portsmouth. Combined with the citizen soldiers were the field batteries of the Royal Artillery, and two brigades of "regulars," including the Royal Marine Artillery, the second Gordon Highlanders, the second Berks Regiment, and the Royal Marine Light Infantry. The force under arms on this field-day exceeded 23,000 men, the volunteers almost entirely representing South of England regiments. A brilliant sham fight was organised for the occasion, the enemy being supposed to have landed in force on the coast east of Portsmouth and marched upon London. Under these circumstances it was assumed that a division had proceeded from Aldershot to assist the garrison, with whom, rather than stand upon the defensive, they advanced to meet the foe in battle. A series of engagements, by which at last victory was given to the attacking force, included many serviceable

manceuvres, in which the volunteers acquitted themselves to the admiration of the Duke of Cambridge, Commander-in-Chief, the Prince of Wales, Prince Edward of Saxe-Weimar, Sir Garnet Wolseley, and a number of foreign officers who rode with the staff. The customary march past was a successful termination to a more than usually satisfactory day. Some idea of the manner in which Easter Monday generally was observed may be gathered from the fact that the police estimated the crowd upon Hampstead Heath at 100,000; the Botanical Gardens at Kew received 56,600 visitors; while the admission to the Zoological Gardens far exceeded any attendance registered since they were established. The influx into London was met by a corresponding exodus to various parts of the country, which tried the resources of the railway companies to the uttermost.

A new Eddystone lighthouse, to replace the old building erected by Smeaton, was opened amidst much rejoicing on the 18th of May, by the Duke of Edinburgh. His Royal Highness, in a Trinity House yacht, was escorted out to the reef by a fleet of holiday steamers and yachts. The lights in the lantern were kindled, the fog-bell sounded, and salutes fired, in signification that the new lighthouse had commenced its career. The decay of the rock upon which Smeaton's lighthouse was built rendered the work necessary, but the old building remained staunch to the last. The modern beacon is loftier than its predecessor, and is furnished with more powerful lights and appliances for warning vessels during fog.

The Queen, who had greatly benefited by her sojourn at Mentone, returned to Windsor Castle on the 14th of April, *via* Cherbourg. As her Majesty left the Châlet de Rosiers royal salutes were given by the gunboat *Cygnets* and the ironclad *Inflexible*, which were anchored in the roadstead during the royal visit. Her Majesty, before leaving, presented 3,000 francs to the poor of Mentone, 1,500 francs to the charitable institutions, and various presents to the local officials, English and foreign, who had assisted to make her stay agreeable. From the balcony of the British Vice-Consulate the Queen and Princess Beatrice on Good Friday evening witnessed an imposing religious procession, representing the removal of the body of Christ to the tomb.

The marriage of Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany, to Princess Helen of Waldeck, was celebrated at St. George's Chapel, Windsor, on the 27th of April. The bride had arrived in the royal yacht *Victoria and Albert* from Flushing on the previous Tuesday, accompanied by her parents, the reigning Prince and Princess of

Waldeck, and her brother and sister. The Princess had a few weeks previously paid a short visit to Windsor, having been fetched from her home by Prince Leopold. No public reception was allowed on this first arrival, but on the later occasion, when the bride was received on landing by Prince Leopold, the Duke of Connaught, Princess Christian, Princess Beatrice, and the Marchioness of Lorne, the Corporation of Queenborough presented an address, and demonstrations of hearty welcome were made along the lines of railway by which the royal party travelled to Windsor. Their Serene Highnesses were met at the entrance to Windsor Castle by the Queen and other members of the family. The King and Queen of the Netherlands came to England to witness the ceremony, and on the evening before the marriage Her Majesty conferred the Order of the Garter upon the former. The ceremony in St. George's Chapel was similar in its details to that observed on the marriage of the Duke of Connaught, on March 13th, 1879. The royal borough of Windsor on the marriage day was thronged with visitors, and the inhabitants, according to their wont, made merry on the occasion with festive crowds, jubilant bells, and music. St. George's Chapel presented the traditionally brilliant display of uniforms, glittering orders, and fashionable attire. The Queen, the Prince and Princess of Wales, the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh, the Duke and Duchess of Connaught, the Prince and Princess Christian, and the younger members of the Royal Family, Ministers, ex-Ministers, and Foreign ambassadors, were the nearest witnesses of the ceremony. The bride arrived at the chapel with her father, and her brother-in-law the King of the Netherlands. His Royal Highness the bridegroom was accompanied to the altar by the Prince of Wales and the Grand Duke of Hesse, and he wore for the first time in public the uniform of a colonel of the English army. A special wedding march by M. Gounod was performed, and the royal pair were married by the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Duke and Duchess of Albany left the Castle in the evening for Claremont, escorted by a detachment of the Second Life Guards along a gaily-decorated route, which was lined with enthusiastic people. At night the Queen gave a grand state banquet in St. George's Hall, at which covers were laid for a hundred guests.

The ceremony of dedicating Epping Forest to the use of the citizens of London was formally performed by the Queen on Saturday, the 6th of May. The Corporation of the City had for many years nobly worked for this desirable consummation. Encroachments, which had been going on for generations had resulted

in the enclosure of spacious tracts of the forest, but the Lord Mayor on this May day of true Queen's weather proudly announced to an enormous multitude of spectators, in the presence of the Queen, surrounded by her officers of state and City magnates, that the difficulties which had long confronted them had at last been surmounted, and that an open space of nearly 6,000 acres of almost unbroken forest scenery, extending from the confines of the metropolis for a distance of thirteen miles, was now available for public health and recreation. The Queen arrived by train at Chingford station at four o'clock, and was driven by way of the picturesque Forest Hotel and Fairmead Plain to High Beech. The East-end of London was abandoned to high holiday on the occasion, and the ceremony in which the Queen had come to take the leading part was conducted amidst rejoicings and splendour. At High Beech the Corporation had erected a beautiful pavilion for the reception of the Queen and the members of the royal family accompanying, and a commanding amphitheatre for invited guests. The Queen was accompanied by the Duke of Connaught in his capacity of Ranger of Epping Forest, the Duchess of Connaught, Princess Beatrice, and the Marchioness of Lorne. A long procession of carriages was preceded by a light troop of the Honourable Artillery Company, and a detachment of mounted police escorted Her Majesty from the station to High Beech. Here an address was presented from the Mayor and Commonalty and citizens of London, Conservators of Epping Forest, reminding Her Majesty that the royal forest of Waltham was for many centuries a hunting-ground for the sovereigns of the country; but that it had been reserved for Her Majesty to substitute popular rights for royal privileges, and to dedicate those beautiful scenes to the enjoyment of her people for ever. Thanking the Lord Mayor for his address, the Queen announced that she dedicated the forest with the greatest satisfaction to the use and enjoyment of her people for all time to come. An oak-tree was planted close by in honour of the day, and as a further memento of the royal visit the neighbouring beech copse will be henceforth known as Queen Victoria's Wood. A baronetcy was subsequently conferred upon Lord Mayor Ellis, and knighthoods upon Sheriff Reginald Hanson and Sheriff William Anderson Ogg, in commemoration of the release from encroachments of old Epping Forest.

Her Majesty left Windsor Castle on the 19th of May, and remained at Balmoral for a month. Previous to her departure she conferred the honour of knighthood upon Mr. W. F. Douglas, President of the Scottish Academy, and Mr. John J. Jenkins, M.P., in honour of the visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales

to Swansea. During May the *Gazette* announced that the dignity of baronet of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland had been granted to Mr. Henry Hussey Vivian, of Singleton, Swansea; Mr. Alexander Matheson, of Lochalsh, Ross; Mr. Frederick Acclom Milbank, of Well, North Riding of York; Mr. Michael Arthur Bass, of Rangemore Hall, Tatenhill, Stafford (with remainder in default of issue male to Hamar Alfred Bass, of Needwood House, Rolleston, Stafford); Mr. Joseph Whitwell Pease, of Hutton Low Cross and Pinchinthorpe, Gisborough, North Riding; Mr. John Bennet Lawes, of Rothamsted, Hertford; Mr. Charles Elphinstone Adam, of Blair-Adam, Kinross; Mr. Samuel Stephens Marling, of Stanley Park, Kingstanley, Gloucester; and Mr. Charles James Freake, of Cromwell House, Kensington. The Victoria Cross was also conferred by the Queen on Richard Hill, 2nd Battalion Northamptonshire Regiment, for gallant conduct at the action of Laing's Nek; on Lance-Corporal James Murray, late 2nd Battalion Connaught Rangers, for gallant conduct during an engagement with the Boers at Elandsfontein, on the 16th of January, 1881; and Private Edmond Fowler, 2nd Battalion of the Cameronians (Scotch Rifles), for conspicuous bravery at the assault of the Inhoblane Mountain, March 28th, 1879.

The Prince and Princess of Wales on the 22nd June paid a visit to Bradford. During their stay they were the guests of Mr. Titus Salt, of Saltaire. On the following day a grand procession escorted their Royal Highnesses into the town, where the Bradford Technical School, the most complete institution of its kind in the country, was opened. The decorations of the borough, the vast crowds, and the excellence of all the arrangements, were specially praised by the Prince of Wales. On the following Monday their Royal Highnesses opened the new Alexandra Park at Hastings, and the Princess on the same day opened a convalescent home for poor children at St. Leonards.

The *Court Circular*, on the 28th June, announced that the Queen had received with much thankfulness the assurance that the Duke of Edinburgh was not the worse for a narrow escape he had had from drowning near Bayona Bridge, Santiago. His Royal Highness was fishing in the weir when his foot slipped. He fell into the water, and was carried under four times in a depth of sixteen feet.

Riots broke out amongst the Welsh and Cornish miners in the month of May, and it was a coincidence that, although they arose from entirely different causes, both began on the same day of the

month. The disturbance that proved the most difficult to deal with was that amongst the North Wales colliers. It resulted from a strike occasioned by the refusal of the men to submit to a wage reduction of 5 per cent. On the morning of the 18th of May, as the firemen and labourers connected with some collieries in the Ruabon district were going to their employment they were accosted by gangs of men on strike, who warned them that their lives would be in danger if they acted contrary to the wishes of the majority. Two men returning from work on the previous night had been beaten by their fellow-workmen on strike. The threatened miners, notwithstanding, continued to maintain a determined attitude. A large force of rioters surrounded a colliery near Wrexham, and besieged the pit, in which 150 men were working. Matters reached such a pitch of menace that the Deputy Constable of Denbighshire interfered. His men were driven off the ground, windows were smashed, and sticks and stones freely used. Under these circumstances the Royal Welsh Fusiliers were marched to the scene of action, and a force of the Denbighshire and Merionethshire Militia, which happened to be in the district on their annual training, were under orders to assist, if necessary, in putting an end to the reign of disorder. The miners thenceforth abstained from violence, but still remained on strike. They held a mass meeting, attended by 5,000 North Wales colliers, on the Wrexham racecourse, and determined only to resume work upon their own terms. The employers refused to rescind their notice of reduction, and the men refused to terminate the strike. Eventually concessions were made on both sides, and by the beginning of June the strike, which had lasted seven weeks, virtually collapsed. The second riot, to which reference has been made, took place at Camborne, in West Cornwall, and was caused, not through any conflict between capital and labour, but through bad blood, which had existed for some time between the Irish and Cornish workmen. Two Irishmen at last brutally assaulted a brother workman, and were sentenced to terms of imprisonment. The companions of the maltreated miner, not content with the sentences passed, followed the police who had the prisoners in charge, and attacked them. An Irishman, who had given evidence on behalf of the prisoners, was severely injured, and hurled into a saw-pit. After these preliminaries the Cornish mob vigorously attacked the Irishmen's quarters, went to a neighbouring mine and wreaked their anger upon the Irishmen at work there, and then proceeded to the Roman Catholic church, which they partially wrecked, attacking in the same manner the residence of the priest



and the house of a gentleman who was a prominent member of the Roman Catholic community. For a while Camborne seemed to be in the hands of the mob; the disturbances were repeated on the following night, and the neighbourhood was for two or three days in a state of terror. The frightened Irish inhabitants in the outlying villages hid themselves in sheds and under ricks. The police after a while became masters of the situation, and subscriptions were raised to restore the damaged buildings.

Pleasanter to record, sad though the sequel was, is an exhibition of true heroism at the Stratford pit, near Atherstone, on the 2nd of May. A fire had broken out below, imprisoning nine colliers. A search party descended, encountering an explosion. The majority of the explorers, badly burned, escaped for the time, leaving, however, the owner of the colliery and two men behind. A brave essay at rescue was again undertaken, and with partial success. One collier, however, was still left, but a young man named Chetwynd, tying a rope round his waist, and dashing through the smoke, brought him to bank, unfortunately only to die. Ten of the explorers afterwards died, and the nine colliers for whom they sacrificed their lives also perished. On the previous day seven men and boys were killed by an explosion at the Victoria Collieries, Marley, in the Leeds district. On the 18th and 19th of April fatal colliery explosions occurred in Durham. In the first, thirty-eight lives were lost at the Black Horse Colliery, and in the second, thirteen at West Stanley.

A disturbance, which seemed at first to be an organised "No Rent" agitation, broke out in the middle of April in the secluded and usually peaceful Island of Skye. It afterwards transpired that the agitation was the outcome of a long-rooted discontent between the Skye crofters and the landowners. A number of tenants, on account of their refusal to pay rent, had been evicted from their little holdings in the portion of the island called the Braes. The sheriff's officer who went to serve the summonses of ejectment was resisted in the execution of his duty, and in fact assaulted by the angry men and women. Constables were thereupon brought over from Inverness-shire and Glasgow, and this importation seemed to rouse the hot blood of the islanders to temporary frenzy, for they met the police in force, and the collision became a matter of bludgeons and broken heads. The conflict, being magnified into an organised defiance of the authorities, attracted much attention in Scotland and England. The assaults were afterwards represented in their true light, and the special correspondents and Land League agents, who were hastily dispatched to the island, finding the crofters quiet and law-

abiding, confined their inquiries to the general condition of the crofters past and present. It was quite true that in various districts the crofters objected to pay their rent until certain ancient privileges, which they alleged had been taken from them, were restored. A melancholy condition of affairs was disclosed, many tenants whose families had occupied the poverty-stricken crofts for generations having been compelled to emigrate, while others had been reduced to extreme penury. The men who were arrested for the assault were taken to Inverness, but were leniently dealt with, it being considered that the fray was unpremeditated, and that those who had resisted the law had suffered severely from the batons of the police. The matter was brought before Parliament with the view of inducing the Government to grant a royal commission to inquire into the state of the crofters generally throughout the north-western part of Scotland, but the Government did not see their way to grant the request. The "rent agitation in Skye," by which name the break in the peaceful routine of the island was known, soon abated, leaving, however, a determination on the part of the crofters, who found many sympathisers throughout the kingdom, to endeavour by peaceable means to obtain a redress of their grievances.

The tendency of one type of crime to repeat itself, as has been illustrated in the case of the prize-fighters, was noticed also in the month of April in repeated attempts to upset trains. On the 6th of April the engine drawing the midnight passenger express from Perth to Inverness was jerked off the metals by a "chair" which had been firmly fixed to the rails. During the same week a huge stone, weighing about half a ton, was rolled between the rails between Manchester and Sheffield. A fortnight later a passenger train on the Taff Vale branch narrowly escaped wreckage by a number of stones that had been placed upon the rails. Within a few days, similar obstructions were found on an Irish railway. The wicked designs were fortunately in most cases discovered in time to prevent the fatal results which must otherwise have occurred. No intelligible explanation was offered for these attempts to destroy life, though in at least one instance, it was reasonably supposed that they arose from an insane desire of stupid persons to find amusement.

The inhuman treatment of boys on board coasting vessels was revealed by a case which terminated in the execution of the master of the smack *Rising Sun*, of Hull. On board this craft sailed a boy named William Pepper. The *Rising Sun* left Hull on the 17th of December, and until the 29th the boy was

subjected to systematic brutality by the captain and some members of the crew. The captain, whose name was Osmond Otto Brand, was both skipper and owner. The course of inhumanity culminated in the lad being placed in the bottom of the smack in the bilge water, jumped upon by his master, and, in a state of exhaustion, hoisted on deck and beaten so shockingly that he died the next day. When Osmond Otto Brand was brought before the Hull magistrates he narrowly escaped lynching by an angry crowd, numbering thousands of persons. The plea advanced by the man, that he did not intend to kill the lad, did not avail him when, in May, he appeared at the Leeds Assizes to answer the capital charge. The jury convicted him of the wilful murder of the poor fisher lad, the judge characterised the crime as the most atrocious he had ever heard, and Brand paid the penalty of his offence on the gallows.\*

An interesting International Fisheries Exhibition was held at Edinburgh during the month of April, and it was in every respect a success. It was visited by 138,000 persons, and the receipts for admission amounted to £5,236, showing a surplus over the expenses of more than £2,000. The Exhibition was held in the Waverley Market, and afforded to the visitors, who in the evenings were sometimes so numerous that hundreds for whom room could not be found had to be turned away from the doors, a variety of useful information upon matters connected with the sea fisheries in which Scotland has so large an interest, and in the hatching of salmonidæ. The exhibition was opened by Lord Roseberry, who delivered on the occasion an exhaustive speech on the general subject of fisheries.

The trials of a woman forger and adventuress named Mary Jane Furneaux, and an alleged accomplice named James Gething, disclosed an amount of simplicity on the part of apparently sensible people which might truthfully be termed incredible. Gething was found not guilty, and discharged, but the evidence which brought home guilt to the female prisoner was of an astounding kind. She was a middle-aged, masculine-looking person, who for a long while dressed as a man, and gave herself out to be Lord Arthur Clinton. She had also represented herself to be a great heiress and daughter of Lady Butler. In the perpetration of a long series of frauds she forged letters in the names of the Queen, the Prince of Wales, Lord Coleridge, Mr. Justice Denman, Mr. Justice Williams, Lord Strathnairn, Lord Lytton, Lord

\* A committee was subsequently appointed by the Board of Trade to enquire into the regulations under which the fishing trade is carried on. Their sittings commenced at North Shields, Sept. 25.

Granville, Lord Justice Lush, Sir John Bennett, Sir Thomas Biddulph, and others. The police, in rummaging her boxes, discovered something like four thousand letters, many of which had been accompanied by cheques, bank notes, and minor remittances sent in response to her fraudulent representations. She had prosecuted her schemes under various aliases, and money-lenders, tradesmen, clergymen, and people of substantial means had been victimised. In her character of Lord Clinton she engaged herself to a young woman, who upon discovering the cheat practised upon her was driven mad; and the wife of a man who had advanced her £3,000, and been thereby ruined, was, at the time of the arrest, in a lunatic asylum. So successful was this adventuress, and so great was the influence she exercised over the dupes with whom she became associated, that one unfortunate man not only parted with his own money, but borrowed £1,100 to minister to her necessities. The estimated receipts of these nefarious schemes were said to be £15,000. Amongst many painful deceptions proved at the trial was that of a mechanical engineer who made the woman's acquaintance in Birmingham in 1874, and was induced to lend her money. From time to time he supplied her wants, his wife waiting upon her as a servant. She induced him to sell by auction a small estate left him in Cheshire. Finding himself by-and-by to have been robbed of his all, and to be at the same time £37 in debt, he assaulted the man who presented the account, and was bound over to keep the peace. Mary Jane Furneaux about this time disappeared, leaving her victim to resume his occupation as an engineer. He, however, discovered her whereabouts four years later at Liverpool, and being unable to recover his money, wrote her a threatening letter. For this she brought him before the magistrates, by whom he was committed for trial, and actually sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment. The woman boldly denied all knowledge of the man, but it was stated, and not contradicted, that the police at the time had been informed of her character, and of a previous conviction for fraud. This long career of dishonesty was terminated by the woman's arrest in February, and at one of the preliminary investigations before the magistrates no fewer than one hundred persons who had been victimised were present. Not the least strange feature of the case was the manner in which some of these dupes declined, in spite of proofs, to believe that the woman was an impostor. Many of the forged documents being of a clumsy and outrageous character, grotesquely interlarded with legal jargon, converted condolence with the duped into outbursts of hilarity. The schemes of the soi-disant Lord Clinton were suspended, at least for a season,

at the Warwick Assizes on the 8th of May, when, after the trial had proceeded some time, she abandoned all attempts at defence, admitted her guilt, declaring nevertheless that others had reaped the bulk of the gains, and was sentenced to seven years' penal servitude.

Among the *causes célèbres* which attracted no little public attention came early in March "the Finchley Mystery." The evidence indicated phases in the life of the modern criminal as grotesque as any read of in fiction, and the descriptions of some of the witnesses of the inner ordering of a low lodging-house in the Borough sounded more like quotations from the history of Fagin than the plain records of latter day facts. The story of the crime may be thus briefly told:—On Saturday, the 4th of March, the body of a man, evidently done to death by nineteen wounds, was found lying between two trees in Coppett's Wood, Finchley. The proceeds of an obvious burglary lay scattered around, such, for example, as a quantity of plate, a pair of plated candlesticks, a toast-rack, half a dozen wine bottles, four of which had been emptied, wearing-apparel, and various remnants of garments, apparently torn off the wearer in a deadly struggle. The murdered man, who was identified as Enoch Clark, on the evening of the 2nd March started forth on a burglarious expedition with a brother robber, aged twenty, and named John Baker. The burglary upon which they had set their hearts was successfully committed, and the next morning Baker returned to his squalid quarters alone. It was observed by the men and women who occupied the lodging-house that he wore buttoned instead of side-spring boots, and that ominous crimson spots were upon his clothing. The suspicious stains he explained by stating that they were spillings of port wine. The absence of his comrade Clark he did not account for, except by general assurances that he would return shortly. A woman with whom Clark lived in this refuge of human dregs became importunate in her inquiries, and Baker then informed his friends of the burglary, and suggested that Clark might have been captured by the police. A companion known in the community by the name of "Curly" was invited in the afternoon to accompany the burglar to Finchley, where Baker went into the wood, returning with a basket filled with the hitherto concealed plunder. On the Saturday night, however—the third after the robbery—the old adage "murder will out" was verified. A band of gipsies were encamped near Coppett's Wood, and a party searching for a runaway pony came upon the dead body of Enoch Clark. Baker was apprehended and tried. That Clark had met his death at the hands of his fellow-thief was placed beyond dispute, but the jury, partly

accepting the theory of the defence that it might have been caused in a quarrel between the two, or between the dead man and other burglars who attempted to despoil him of his booty, found that the accused had no intention to kill, and so, under the direction of Mr. Justice Hawkins, they returned a verdict of manslaughter. His Lordship, in sentencing the prisoner (May 8) to penal servitude for life, informed him that he had been found guilty by a very merciful jury.

The number of deaths by drowning in one year—viz., 1880, was shown by a Parliamentary return, issued on the motion of Mr. Jacob Bright, to be 4,044. Of this number 770 were of females; 3,025 were cases of persons above twelve years of age; 21 were cases of murder, 5 of manslaughter, and 471 of suicide. Of the latter 4 were of boys and girls under twelve years of age. Under the vague heading of "falling from the land into the water," 1,141 deaths were recorded; 67 were ice accidents; 86 fishing accidents; deaths by bathing amounted to the number of 423, and pleasure boating accidents 126. These returns still left 1,030 deaths by drowning from unknown causes, and 258 from unenumerated causes.

During the Whitsuntide holidays many interesting ceremonies took place in the provinces. The Prince and Princess of Wales at Leicester, on Whit-Monday, opened the new Abbey Park, which had been laid out by the Corporation at a cost of about £50,000. During this visit a man in an exuberance of loyalty approached close to the royal carriage, and some alarm was created by the rumour, easily promoted on account of the recent attempt upon the Queen's life, that a felonious assault was intended. The man being apprehended, the affair proved to be simply the freak of a semi-drunken individual who had made a bet with some boon companions that he would shake hands with the Princess of Wales. Through the intercession of their Royal Highnesses this individual was released from the short term of imprisonment which was passed upon him by the local magistrates. On Tuesday the Prince and Princess of Wales went to Great Yarmouth, where his Royal Highness opened the new Municipal Buildings, amidst much public rejoicing. On the 31st May a new town-hall, free library, and school of science and art, costing about £60,000, were opened at Reading by Mr. Walter, M.P., and on the 1st June Mr. John Bright opened the new central free library building at Birmingham. On the same day Lord Derby laid the foundation-stone of a new court-house at Liverpool for the Lancashire County Sessions, of which bench he was chairman.

On Wednesday, the 31st of May, the bell "Great Paul,"

whose founding at Loughborough and journey by road to London had been watched with deep interest, was hung at St. Paul's, to have, until a larger shall be provided, the distinction of being the largest bell in the country, and the largest swinging bell in the world.

At Corby, near Kettering, one of the few ancient country customs left us in this progressive age was observed on Whit-Monday, in the holding of the great Pole Fair. This feast recurs once every twenty years, to commemorate the charter granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1585, and confirmed by James II. in 1682, to the men and tenants of the ancient demesne. The rector, on such celebrations, is carried in mock state to the outskirts of the village, where he reads the Charter. Ancient custom then demands that he shall be placed in the stocks, and liberated on paying a toll. By the same rule, all the male residents of the place must be similarly treated, and barriers are placed at each entrance of the village, and toll taken of all visitors. Another of the quaint regulations of this occasional festival is, that persons discovered without tickets are placed in the stocks until the rights of the free men are satisfied.

A youth, named Albert Young, seventeen years of age, who had formerly been a clerk in the service of the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway, was sentenced at the Central Criminal Court, on May 26th, to ten years' penal servitude, "for maliciously sending to Lieut.-Gen. the Right Hon. Sir Henry Ponsonby, K.C.B., Keeper of the Privy Purse, a letter threatening to murder the Queen and Prince Leopold, and demanding with menaces, without reasonable cause, certain money." The youth, in the letter thus described, stated that he was a Roman Catholic priest, and that there were fifty men in his parish who had been ejected by their landlords, and who had banded themselves together for the Queen's destruction. They all, so the document asserted, were ready to leave for America on receipt of £40 per man. In a postscript, the prisoner asked that the money should be sent to his own address and his own initials. The letter was received by Sir Henry Ponsonby on the 24th of April, and forwarded to the Home Office. The counsel for the defence urged that no proof had been given that the letter was in the prisoner's handwriting. The jury, however, without leaving the box, found him guilty, and recommended him to mercy on account of his youth.

Another balloon voyage across the Channel was projected on the 10th of June. The start was made from Maldon, Essex, in a gale of wind. The aeronaut was Mr. Simmons, and Sir Claude de Crespigny had arranged to accompany him. Owing to the high

wind the balloon dragged a good deal at starting, and in a bound against a brick wall fractured Sir Claude's leg so that he fell out of the car, when about fifteen feet from the ground. An old man who was assisting in releasing the balloon was also badly hurt, having four ribs broken. Mr. Simmons ascended alone at a quarter to one, and landed seven miles beyond the town of Arras, near Calais, at thirty-five minutes past two, having travelled the surprising distance of 140 miles in the interval. Mr. Simmons reported that he was only twelve minutes in passing from the English chalk cliffs to the French coast.

Suggestions for the improvement of prison administration were made to the Home Secretary early in June, by a deputation from the Fourth Annual Prison Conference, held during the previous week. The suggestions were embodied in five resolutions passed by the Conference. First was suggested the desirableness of forming a Prisoners' Aid Society in connection with every prison; secondly, the necessity of conveying, at the public expense, every discharged prisoner to the place where he was committed or convicted; thirdly, that the prisoners sentenced for three or four months should, for the last three weeks of imprisonment, have an improved diet; fourthly, the necessity of the attendance of warders to give evidence of previous convictions; and fifthly, that the expense of providing clothes should not be thrown on the local rates. The Home Secretary told the deputation that the new prison system had increased the work of the Home Office and the Secretary of State by one-third, and that one of the greatest difficulties in the administration of the department was the extraordinary, if not morbid, appetite in the public mind for sensational accounts. The right hon. gentleman said his experience did not at all bear out the assumption that what was read in the papers was necessarily a complete and accurate statement of cases, for it constantly happened to him to see most extraordinary charges brought, and on inquiry to find the statements either entirely unfounded or grossly exaggerated.

A large proportion of the scares raised from time to time of Fenian designs in England were not proved to have had any foundation. There were two examples, however, which left room for grave belief that some of them were not baseless. On the 12th of May two youths passing by the rear of the Mansion House observed a parcel hanging on the kitchen railings. Attached to it was a coarse string, which had been steeped in paraffine, and was rapidly burning. A constable fetched to the spot pluckily put out the fire and removed the parcel to the police station. The brown paper wrapping being removed, exposed



a tin case containing between fifteen and sixteen pounds of blasting powder, mixed with some other substances. A reward of £500 offered for the discovery of the originator or perpetrator of this design failed of effect. On Saturday morning, the 17th of June, a discovery of a far more significant nature was made in Clerkenwell. This was no less than a formidable collection of arms and ammunition stored in a disused stable in St. John Street Road. The premises had been occupied by one Thomas Walsh, who was arrested and charged at Clerkenwell Police Court with fraudulently dealing in and receiving arms belonging to Her Majesty. Information which afterwards reached the authorities induced them to prosecute the man, at Bow Street, on the more heinous charge of treason-felony. The police had found in the stable at St. John Street Road 277 rifles, 276 bayonets, 30 revolvers, 7,925 cartridges, 600 pistol cartridges, and 400 saloon pistol cartridges. The guns bore the Tower and crown mark, but it was proved that they were not crown arms, and that on the lower parts of the stocks of the rifles, and also on the pistols, were emblems of the shamrock. The stocks of the rifles had been cut half way down and the barrels removed, so that the weapons might be packed in short lengths and sent unsuspected to their destination. A comparison of notes between the English and Irish police convinced them that Walsh had been, for some time past, in the habit of forwarding packages of arms to Ireland. He adopted a system of false consignors and false consignees. His crates, however, addressed to fictitious persons, had been intercepted, secretly opened by the Dublin police, and closed again, in the hope of capturing the confederates who called for them. The packages were described now as groceries, now as hardware.\* It has been pointed out elsewhere that weapons marked with the shamrock brand, and similar in all respects to the stock seized in Clerkenwell, were found in association with outrages in Ireland; and if the origin of Walsh's arsenal was doubtful its destination and purpose appeared only too plain.

A bronze statue to the memory of Sir Rowland Hill, the great postal benefactor, was unveiled by the Prince of Wales, at the south-east corner of the Royal Exchange, on the 17th June.

\* Walsh was tried at the Central Criminal Court on the 7th of August. His defence was that he had been an ignorant agent for others. Mr. Justice Stephen, taking a somewhat similar view, passed a lenient sentence—seven years' penal servitude.

## CHAPTER IV.

[JULY, AUGUST, SEPTEMBER.]

THE cloud which had been rising in the East, at first no bigger than a man's hand, swiftly spread over the sky, and in the first week of July the affairs of Egypt assumed the position in the public mind which Ireland had for so many months dominated. Preparations were promptly made in the dockyards and arsenals for the equipment and dispatch of an expeditionary force in case active intervention in Egypt should be deemed necessary. Siege train batteries, camp stores and appliances, ammunition of all kinds, and cavalry equipments, redoubled the activity at Woolwich, while from Chatham and Upnor Castle guns, shot, shell, and cartridges for the fleet were simultaneously shipped. A new code of regulations was issued for the mobilisation of the first class of the army reserve for permanent service, and in the public prints Sir Garnet Wolseley was from the outset relegated to the chief command of the expedition. The prospect, however, of war was very distasteful to the associations which advocate non-intervention in foreign politics, and meetings were called by them to warn, and counter-meetings by persons holding opposite views, to encourage, the Government. A society called the Patriotic Association met in St. James's Hall to advocate a resolute and independent British policy, in co-operation, if possible, with the Ottoman Government, in order to secure the paramount interest of England in the Suez Canal and Egypt. Lord Waterford, Sir Henry Hoare, Sir A. Campbell, Sir Algernon Borthwick, Mr. Ashmead Bartlett, M.P., Mr. Edward Clarke, M.P., and Lord C. Hamilton took part in the business. The resolutions passed declared that the interests of England in Egypt and the Suez Canal—the great high road to our Indian Empire and our colonies—are paramount, and demand a resolute and independent British policy; also that any attitude taken with regard to Egypt should, as far as possible, respect the sovereign rights of Turkey and the Mussulman feeling in the East. At Sheffield the local Conservatives called a meeting in Paradise Square, but the Liberals issued placards urging their supporters to attend, and the somewhat unusual arrangement was made of the platform being divided between the two parties. The chairman of the Conservative Association presided over the gathering, which was estimated at from 16,000 to 18,000 persons. A household so divided against itself naturally did not stand successfully, and the vast multitude at length became so excited

over the affairs of Ireland that they separated before the question of Egypt, which they had met to consider, could be brought before them. When the news arrived in England of the bombardment of Alexandria, meetings of this kind increased, and amongst others was a conference of delegates from working men's clubs and other labour organisations, held at the Westminster Palace Hotel, to consider the action of the Government. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, M.P., took a leading part in the proceedings, and, in supporting the principal resolution, condemned the bombardment of Alexandria, and called upon the meeting to declare that, whatever the upper classes might think, the working men considered that British honour was more valuable than British interests. Military preparations, meanwhile, were pushed on vigorously, and the *Dacca* steam-ship, the property of the British India Steam Navigation Company, chartered by the Government, took out the first contingent of the British expeditionary force. That force was officially determined upon as follows :—

**FIRST DIVISION.**—First Brigade.—First Brigade Staff, 2nd Battalion Grenadier Guards, 2nd Battalion Coldstream Guards, 1st Battalion Scots Guards. Second Brigade.—Second Brigade Staff, 2nd Battalion Royal Irish, 1st Battalion West Kent, 2nd Battalion York and Lancaster, 1st Battalion Royal Irish Fusiliers. Divisional Troops.—Two squadrons 19th Hussars, 2nd Battalion Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, A Battery 1st Brigade Royal Artillery, D Battery 1st Brigade Royal Artillery, 24th Company Royal Engineers, Veterinary Department, Commissariat and Transport 11th Company, Half-Bearer Company, two field hospitals, Postal Department.

**SECOND DIVISION.**—Third Brigade.—Third Brigade Staff, 1st Battalion Royal Highlanders, 2nd Battalion Highland Light Infantry, 1st Battalion Gordon Highlanders, 1st Battalion Cameron Highlanders. Fourth Brigade.—Fourth Brigade Staff, 1st Battalion Sussex, 1st Battalion Berkshire, 1st Battalion South Staffordshire, 1st Battalion Shropshire Light Infantry. Divisional Troops.—Two squadrons 19th Hussars, 3rd Battalion King's Royal Rifle Corps, I Battery 2nd Brigade Royal Artillery, N Battery 2nd Brigade Royal Artillery, 26th Company Royal Engineers, Veterinary Department, Commissariat and Transport 12th Company, Half-Bearer Company, two field hospitals, Postal Department.

**CORPS TROOPS.**—Cavalry Brigade.—Staff, three squadrons Household Cavalry, 4th Dragoon Guards, 7th Dragoon Guards, N Battery A Brigade Royal Horse Artillery, Commissariat and Transport 15th Company, Half-Bearer Company, Postal Depart-

ment. Corps Artillery.—Regimental Staff, G Battery B Brigade Royal Horse Artillery, C Battery 3rd Brigade Royal Artillery, J Battery 3rd Brigade Royal Artillery, Ammunition Reserve, F Battery 1st Brigade Royal Artillery.

Siege Train.—Regimental Staff, 4th Battery London Division Royal Artillery, 5th Battery London Division Royal Artillery, 5th Battery Scottish Division Royal Artillery, 6th Battery Scottish Division Royal Artillery.

The War Office returns of troops sailing from home were—Household Cavalry (three squadrons), 25 officers, 452 men, 428 horses; 4th and 7th Dragoon Guards, and 19th Hussars, each 31 officers, 574 men, 526 horses; Royal Horse Artillery (two batteries), 14 officers, 350 men, 354 horses; Royal Artillery (six batteries), 42 officers, 1,164 men, 860 horses; Royal Engineers, 30 officers, 876 men, 222 horses; Infantry: two battalions—1st West Kent and 1st Shropshire—of 30 officers and 862 men; and eight battalions—1st Grenadier Guards, 2nd Coldstream Guards, 1st Scots Guards, 2nd Royal Irish, 2nd York and Lancaster, 1st Royal Irish Fusiliers, 1st Royal Highlanders, and 2nd Highland Light Infantry—each 30 officers, 762 men; Commissariat and Transport staff, 14 officers, 518 men; Army Medical Department, 84 officers, 866 men.

The *Dacca* sailed from Portsmouth on the 27th July with a detachment of the Royal Marines and the Royal Marine Artillery. On Sunday, the 30th July, the Guards sailed from the Albert Docks in the Australian steam-ship *Orient*. Enormous crowds were gathered together on the pier and at every available standpoint at the Albert Docks, and the departure of the vessel was the scene of immense enthusiasm. The Duke of Connaught was on board, and, accompanying him to witness his departure, were the Duke of Cambridge, the Prince of Wales, the Duke of Edinburgh, the Princess of Wales, and the Duchess of Connaught. Mr. Childers, the Minister for War, was also present to bid farewell to the soldiers, and a special steamer was chartered by the Guards' Club to convey their friends down the river. The detachments sailed daily after this departure, various merchant steamers of the best class being chartered for the transport service. Previous to their departure for Egypt the commanders of the various regiments read to their men messages from the Queen, expressing her best wishes for their welfare, and her regret that she was unable to witness their departure. Many of them were, nevertheless, inspected by the Prince and Princess of Wales, and other members of the royal family, and when the embarked First Life Guards and a portion of the Royal Horse Guards Blue passed through

Cowes Roads on Wednesday, the 2nd of August, the Queen and Princess from the terrace at Osborne signalled to the officer in command the message, "I wish you all God speed, and shall hope to hear of you from Gibraltar." The Prince of Wales, on board his yacht, steamed to the ship and went on board, and the transport proceeded down the Solent amidst perpetual cheering from the yachts. Sir Garnet Wolseley sailed the same day in the *Calabria*. By August 11th nearly the whole of the troops were on their way to Egypt. By royal proclamation the reserve force for permanent service was called out, the proclamation stating that "the present state of public affairs in Egypt, and the necessity in connection therewith of taking steps for the maintenance of peace and for the protection of the interests of the Empire have, in our opinion, constituted a case of great emergency within the meaning of the Acts." It should also be mentioned that more than one Militia regiment volunteered for foreign service, and that a select body of officials belonging to the Post Office Volunteer Corps were sent to Egypt to conduct the postal business of the campaign.

In spite of the occasional protests heard from advanced Liberal associations the balance of opinion on the part of the general public was evidently in favour of the prompt measures taken by Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour in bombarding Alexandria, and of the dispatch of the expeditionary force. An attempt was made at a meeting of the Committee of the Cobden Club, on Saturday, the 22nd July, to discuss the Egyptian policy of the ministry. Sir Wilfrid Lawson had given Mr. T. B. Potter, M.P., Honorary Secretary of the Club, notice of a resolution to the effect that the Committee of the Cobden Club desire to express their deep regret at the "international outrage" committed by the Fleet at Alexandria on the 11th of July; but in deference to the opinion of several influential members of the Club, the resolution was not pressed. A second attempt was made on the 29th July, at their annual meeting, to pledge the Cobden Club to an opinion upon the Egyptian question. Mr. T. B. Potter, M.P., however, again deprecated any interference in questions of current political strife, and this view being strongly endorsed by the Right Hon. A. S. Ayrton, Mr. Thorold Rogers, M.P., and others, the matter dropped. At a meeting of the City Liberal Club, presided over by Sir John Lubbock (in the absence of Lord Granville) a resolution, proposed by the Chairman and seconded by Mr. Alderman Lawrence, M.P., was unanimously carried, expressive of cordial and unabated confidence in Her Majesty's Government.

In Parliament, as in the public mind, Egypt replaced Ireland in its claims upon legislative attention. On the 7th of July Mr. Gladstone, being questioned, informed the House that nothing had then reached the Government of a disquieting character. Three days later, however, Lord Granville, questioned in the House of Lords as to the reported notice of bombardment, stated that there was no alternative for the admiral commanding the fleet but to give such notice, and a similar announcement was made the same day in the House of Commons. Thenceforth daily, at every sitting of the House, information was requested as to the operations of our forces, and the relations of the Government with France and Turkey. Parliamentary papers not being forthcoming, on the 12th of July Mr. Gourley moved the adjournment of the House, in order to obtain from the Government a declaration of their policy, and Sir Wilfrid Lawson, who throughout was prominent in opposing armed intervention, denounced the bombardment of Alexandria on the previous day as a national crime, a cowardly, cruel, and criminal act, a drifting into war with our eyes open, and a massacre of the Egyptian people. The hon. member also warned the Prime Minister that he would lose the confidence of the working classes, who had brought him into office. The Prime Minister emphatically denied the statements which had been made both in and out of Parliament that the bombardment had been undertaken in the interest of bondholders. It had, he said, been undertaken because the security of Her Majesty's fleet had been threatened by the continual erection of fortifications. Several of the advanced Liberals and some Irish members, together with a few independent members of the Opposition, joined in censuring the Eastern policy of the Government. Sir Charles Dilke took the opportunity of denying that Arabi Pasha represented the national party in Egypt, and of stating that the only powers which had expressed an opinion with regard to the bombardment had approved of the action of the Government as perfectly legitimate. On the 18th of July Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, who had succeeded Mr. Trevelyan as Secretary to the Admiralty, informed the House that the conduct of Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour was entirely approved by the Government.

On the 17th of July the Right Hon. John Bright, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, who had resigned his seat in the Cabinet in consequence of the bombardment of Alexandria, was called upon by members sitting in different parts of the House to make an explanation. The right hon. gentleman said there was really nothing to explain, and nothing to defend. He had found it fundamentally impossible to concur with his late colleagues in their Egyptian

policy, and so thought it better for them and for the country that he should place his resignation in the hands of Her Majesty. He should have retired sooner, he further explained, but for his profound regard for the Prime Minister and his other colleagues. For forty years he had endeavoured to teach his countrymen that the moral law was as applicable to the conduct of nations as of individuals, and the present case, he considered, was a manifest violation both of international and of moral law. The Prime Minister, from his place in the House, expressed regret at Mr. Bright's retirement, and assured him that he would carry with him the unbroken regard and esteem of his colleagues. At the same time the Government equally held with him that moral law should govern the conduct of nations, but they differed from him in the application of the principle. Lord Kimberley was temporarily appointed to the Duchy of Lancaster, holding the office in conjunction with his Secretaryship of State at the Colonial Office.

A letter having appeared in the *Times* of Tuesday, the 18th July, purporting to be from Arabi Pasha to Mr. Gladstone, Lord Carnarvon, in the House of Lords, asked whether the letter was the whole or only part of the correspondence, and whether any notion could be given as to its real author. Lord Granville replied that it was the only letter received by Mr. Gladstone, who did not know by whom it was written, and who had, therefore, not replied to it. The noble Earl, however, further questioned by Lord Salisbury, said that the person who had presented the letter was not accredited to her Majesty's Government. At the same sitting, the Queen's intention of calling out the reserves was communicated to the House, and Viscount Enfield, political secretary to the India Office, moved "that, her Majesty having directed a military expedition of her forces, charged upon the revenues of India, to be dispatched for service in Egypt, this House consents that the revenue of India shall be applied to defraying the expenses of the military operations which may be carried on by such forces beyond the external frontiers of her Majesty's Indian possessions." The Opposition peers raised no objection to this. In the House of Commons, however, the Government found themselves face to face with a considerable opposition, when, on the 31st July, the Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for India, moved a similar resolution. He recited the previous occasions on which Indian troops had been employed outside the Indian frontiers, and detailed the political and military reasons why they should be employed in the Egyptian expedition. His principal argument was that India was greatly interested in keeping open the route through which the great bulk of her trade passed, and

that it was of importance to show that England regarded her Indian troops as not a mere garrison, but as a portion of the forces of the crown that could be trusted even in a war against Mahometans. He, however, pointed out that as the force would not be more than 5,000 men, with a reserve of 1,500, the charge on India would be small. An amendment was moved by Mr. Onslow, the effect of which would be to lay the charge of the military expedition by the Indian troops on the Imperial exchequer. After considerable discussion, Mr. Childers stated that the Government, with the view of meeting the general desire to keep the financial question open, would consent to insert in the motion the words "subject to any future decision of Parliament." The amendment was in the end withdrawn, and Lord Hartington's motion, with the addition of the words just quoted, was carried.

The voting of the sinews of war was the culminating point of interest in the House of Commons. On the 24th July the Prime Minister, with the view of obtaining a vote of credit, explained the policy and objects of the proposed expedition. The amount of the vote would be £2,300,000—viz., £900,000 for the army, and £1,400,000 for the navy. Of the latter sum £1,200,000 was for transports. The force to be despatched consisted of 2,400 cavalry, 13,400 infantry, 1,700 artillery, 3,700 hospital and other non-combatant services, and a reserve of 3,100. To provide for this unexpected expenditure the income-tax would be increased for the last half of the current year by 3d. This would be 1½d. for the whole year, raising the total tax to 6½d. This additional income-tax would produce about £2,800,000, of which £2,262,000 would be collected during the current year. The general state of the revenue was such that the Prime Minister was able to promise that he could grant relief to the highway rates without increasing the carriage duties, as proposed in his budget statement. Mr. Gladstone, in the course of his speech, described the condition of Egypt as one of lawless military violence aggravated by wanton and cruel crime; and he repeated the assurance previously made in both Houses of Parliament, that there was not a shred of evidence for supposing Arabi Pasha to be the leader of a national party. The leader of the Opposition asking for further time to discuss a statement which was, in some respects, to his mind surprising and disappointing, the vote of credit was postponed till the following Tuesday. On this day the Egyptian question having been discussed in all its bearings, the debate was again adjourned, and resumed on Wednesday. The vote was agreed to on the following day.

The story of the short decisive war is told in a subsequent



chapter. Its progress was watched at home with feverish interest, and, thanks to the high degree of development to which telegraph and newspaper enterprise had arrived, hourly telegrams from the front were published in all the principal towns of the country.

Until the close of the Session both Houses of Parliament were mainly engaged with the Crime Prevention and Arrears Bills, as indicated in a previous chapter. The former had been persistently opposed and obstructed in Committee of the House of Commons. The points against which most objection was raised were the substitution of a commission of judges for trial by jury, and the "intimidation clause," which aimed at putting down the pernicious system of Boycotting. It should also be mentioned that the power given by the bill to expel suspected aliens from Ireland was extended to Great Britain, and it will not be forgotten that it was upon the 17th clause, imposing financial compensation upon districts tainted with undetected crimes, that the memorable prolonged sitting occurred. On the 3rd of July the Urgency resolution of 1881 was temporarily revived to meet a recurrence of such obstruction. The third reading was carried on the 7th of July, and the bill without delay passed the House of Lords, being read a second time on the 10th of July, reported without amendment on the 11th, and received the royal assent on the 12th.

Not so easy of disposal was the Arrears Bill. For many days the attitude of the opposition in the House of Lords threatened to bring about a deadlock between the two Houses, and the chances of an appeal to the country were freely debated in the public prints. The bill was amended in its vital parts, especially by an amendment moved by Lord Salisbury, leader of the Opposition in the Upper House, depriving the tenant of the right to apply to the court without the landlord's consent. This amendment was carried after an exhaustive debate by 169 to 98 votes. The Lords' Amendments, so far as they affected the leading principles of the measure, were, however, firmly withstood by the Prime Minister, with a large majority at his back, and the Commons' Amendments to the Lords' Amendments were returned on the 8th of August, and considered on the 10th. The crisis was ended by the Conservative peers declining to follow their leader, and Lord Salisbury was forced to confess that an overwhelming majority of his political friends differed from him. The noble marquis on the 10th of August consequently informed the House of Lords that he washed his hands of further responsibility, and so the Arrears Bill became law, differing only in verbal alterations from the shape in which it had been sent up from the Lower House.

The subject of Cetewayo's proposed visit to England was in-

troduced to the House of Lords by Lord Cadogan on the 3rd of July. The noble earl said the papers recently presented to Parliament made it clear that Cetewayo wished to come to this country for no other purpose than that of obtaining a restitution of the government of Zululand, and he called upon the Government to announce it if they had any ulterior object in allowing him to come to England. Lord Kimberley, Secretary of State for the Colonies, said that Cetewayo had expressed an anxious desire to come to England to lay his case before the Government, and as he was not a criminal, but a captive king, the Government thought it right to accede to that desire. The noble earl also added that Cetewayo was a remarkable man, and that the Government regarded the settlement then existing in Zululand as unsatisfactory, and not having the elements of permanency. The law officers were of opinion that Cetewayo would still be a prisoner of war in the country, and he had promised to obey the orders he received. On the announcement later that Cetewayo was to be restored, under conditions, questions were asked in the House of Lords on the 15th of August, and Lord Kimberley in reply to them said that the Government had determined to consider the possibility of arranging for the partial restoration of Cetewayo to Zululand, with proper safeguards and conditions. Some portion of the country would be reserved to meet obligations towards those of the appointed chiefs and people who would not be willing to return under his rule. A British resident would be maintained in Zululand, but no portion of the country would be annexed as British territory. He had that day made a communication to this effect to Cetewayo. This step was characterised by Lord Salisbury as a reversal of English policy in Zululand, and a grave step to take, and he even insisted that to restore to power one of the most dangerous and bloodthirsty tyrants of South Africa was a course inconsistent with prudence and with the interests of that region. Admitting that the proposed course was a reversal of policy, Lord Kimberley denied that Cetewayo was as bloodthirsty a tyrant as he had been represented to be, though there was no doubt he had committed great cruelties, like most African rulers, "through a belief in witchcraft," and had inflicted wanton and severe punishment to maintain his system. At the same time he could not have retained in misfortune the fidelity of his chiefs and people if he had been as bad as some persons represented him to be.

The hope was expressed in the House of Lords by Lord Carnarvon, on the 28th July, that the Board of Trade would cause experiments to be made to test the efficacy of pouring oil

\* For an account of Cetewayo's visit to England see page 115.

upon the sea in tempestuous weather, and Lord Aberdare mentioned a case in which the use of oil on a stormy sea proved very successful in saving a ship. The subject was introduced to the House of Lords, in consequence of some experiments, said to have been successful, in Scotland, during 1881. Lord Sudeley informed the House that the process had been known for a great number of years, and the probability was that it would have been in general use long ago if it would actually preserve ships from being wrecked. The Board of Trade took much interest in experiments on the subject, and sent officers to watch them, but the department did not consider that its province was to conduct experiments.

The condition of the Island of Cyprus was referred to on the same day by Lord Waveney, who pointed out the rapid progress it had made since England obtained possession of it, and its great advantage to the nation as a military position, and who recommended the Government to keep it and promote colonisation there. From the reply of Lord Kimberley, however, it was shown that for some time to come the income of Cyprus would not balance its expenditure. The island was held by treaty with the Porte, and that was the only tenure of it that the Government could recognise. To a general colonisation of the island, there was the obstacle that Cyprus was already occupied by a population with existing land rights. But colonists had been coming from Asia Minor and islands in the Archipelago, though the experiment of sending Maltese to Cyprus had not been successful. Other noble lords continued the discussion, pointing out the value of Cyprus, and Lord Dunsany observed that a naval harbour there would be of the highest importance to the country.

In discussing the naval estimates in the House of Commons on the 1st August, Sir Thomas Brassey entered into particulars as to the reserves, showing that there were now 44,000 efficient reserves available for manning the navy, and that on the whole the country had never been in a better condition in this respect. While upon the dockyard vote in committee of supply, Mr. Campbell Bannerman tendered information upon the forthcoming works in the dockyards. He promised that the *Ajax* and *Agamemnon* should be completed in the autumn, and the *Conqueror* and *Polphemus* before the end of the year. The *Collingwood* would be launched; and the *Rodney* and *Howe* considerably advanced. As to new ships, the contracts for the *Benbow* had been completed, and two new vessels were to be laid down, their types not to be settled upon until the reports of the fighting qualities of the ships in action at Alexandria had been received.

An attempt made in the previous Session to deprive the Hall of Science, in which Mrs. Besant, Dr. Aveling, and the daughters of Mr. Bradlaugh were engaged, of Government patronage, on the ground of the secularist opinions promulgated by them in their publications, was repeated on August 10th by Sir Henry Tyler, who complained of the grant made by the Education Department to the institution. Mr. Mundella, however, explained on behalf of the Department that everything had been done in due course, that the school had been favourably reported upon by the inspector, and that he had no discretion to withdraw the grant.

The Indian Budget was introduced to the House of Commons, according to immemorial custom, in a thin House, on the 14th of August, by Lord Hartington. The great increase in income over the budget estimate of 1881-2 was caused one-third by the opium revenue, one-third by the revenue from productive works, and one-third from the excise. To a charge made by Mr. Stanhope, M.P., as to increase of expenditure, the noble lord said there was an apparent increase, but it was accounted for by the increase in public works, by the assumption by the Government of certain charges formerly paid by the people, and by a number of small undertakings which were essential for the progress of the country. The net result was, that the Indian Government had a surplus of over three millions to dispose of. It was generally considered that the statement was a most encouraging one, though protests were raised against the opium revenue, and warnings were uttered against the too rapid increase of expenditure.

As early as the 10th of July, Mr. Gladstone was forced to announce to Parliament that he had abandoned all hope of passing any of the minor Bills promised at the beginning of the Session, excepting the Corrupt Practices Bill, and some others of secondary importance. The Corrupt Practices Bill was pushed through its preliminary stages into Committee, and then withdrawn. A Bill suspending from electoral privileges for a limited period, on account of corrupt practices, the boroughs of Boston, Canterbury, Chester, Gloucester, Macclesfield, Oxford, and Sandwich was passed. The Government succeeded in passing their two Scotch Bills, the Parcels Post Bill, introduced by Mr. Fawcett, Postmaster-General, and the Electric Lighting Bill, introduced by the President of the Board of Trade. The Lord Chancellor, at the close of the Session, passed through the House of Lords the Married Women's Property Bill, a measure of considerable importance, which completely secures married women in the possession of their private property and separate income; and Lord Cairns, spite of considerable but futile opposition, succeeded in securing a

safe passage into the Statute Book for his Settled Lands Bill, which removes many antiquated restrictions from the methods of dealing with land in settlement. In addition to the Parcels Post Act, the Postmaster-General promoted legislation for reply post-cards, and an improvement of the Government system of Annuities. There were 82 Public General Acts passed during the Session—the third of the 22nd Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The Local Acts passed numbered 266, and of these 26 related to Tramways, and 95 to Railways.

Amongst the Public General Acts may be enumerated, in the order in which they passed :—An Act to authorise the use of Reply Post Cards ; an Act for making provision for facilitating the Manœuvres of Troops to be assembled during the present Summer ; an Act to amend the Public Health (Scotland) Act, 1867 ; an Act to confer further powers upon the Metropolitan Board of Works with respect to Streets and Buildings in the Metropolis ; an Act to provide for the better application of Moneys paid by way of Compensation for the compulsory acquisition of Common Lands and extinguishment of Rights of Common ; an Act to amend the Law relating to the Interment of any Person found *felo de se* ; an Act to amend the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869 ; an Act to amend the Places of Worship Sites Act, 1873 ; an Act to make better provision for Inquiries with regard to Boiler Explosions ; an Act to extend the Public Health Act, 1875, to the making of Byelaws for Fruit Pickers ; an Act for the prevention of Crime in Ireland ; an Act to amend the law relating to the Election of Lords Temporal to serve in Parliament for Ireland ; an Act to amend the Acts relating to the County Courts in Ireland, and to make better provision for Appeals under the said Acts ; an Act to render Judgments obtained in certain Inferior Courts in England, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively, effectual in any other part of the United Kingdom ; an Act for the acquisition of Property and the provision of new Buildings for the Admiralty and War Office ; an Act further to amend the Acts relating to the raising of Money by the Metropolitan Board of Works, and for other purposes ; an Act to amend The Beer Dealers' Retail Licences Act, 1880 ; an Act to amend the Pauper Inmates' Discharge and Regulation Act, 1871 ; an Act to amend the law respecting the obtaining of Corn Returns ; an Act for facilitating Sales, Leases, and other dispositions of Settled Land, and for promoting the execution of Improvements thereon ; an Act for further improving the Practice of Conveyancing, and for other purposes ; an Act to amend the law of Copyright relating to Musical Compositions ; an Act to

grant certain Duties of Customs and Inland Revenue, to alter other Duties, and to amend the laws relating to Customs and Inland Revenue ; an Act to amend the law relating to Civil Imprisonment in Scotland ; an Act to amend the Bills of Sale Act, 1878 ; an Act to make provision respecting certain Arrears of Rent in Ireland ; an Act to extend the Acts relating to the purchase of small Government Annuities, and to assuring payment of money on death ; an Act to amend the Artizans' and Labourers' Dwellings Acts ; an Act to amend the law with respect to the Charges on and Payments to the Mercantile Marine Fund, and to Expenses of Prosecutions for Offences committed at Sea ; an Act to facilitate and regulate the supply of Electricity for Lighting and other purposes in Great Britain and Ireland ; an Act to reorganise the Educational Endowments of Scotland ; an Act to amend and extend the provisions of the Land Law (Ireland) Act, 1881, relating to Labourers' Cottages and Allotments ; an Act to codify the law relating to Bills of Exchange, Cheques, and Promissory Notes ; an Act to grant Money for the purpose of Loans by the Public Works Loan Commissioners, and the Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland, and the Irish Land Commission, and for other purposes relating to Loans by those Commissioners ; an Act to amend the Acts regulating the pay of certain officers of the Royal Irish Constabulary Force, and for other purposes connected therewith ; an Act to suspend for a limited period, on account of Corrupt Practices, the holding of an Election of a Member or Members to serve in Parliament for certain cities and boroughs ; an Act for the better protection of Ancient Monuments ; an Act to amend the Post Office Acts with respect to the Conveyance of Parcels ; an Act to consolidate and amend the Acts relating to the Property of Married Women ; an Act to amend the Merchant Shipping Acts, 1854 to 1880, with respect to Colonial Courts of Inquiry ; an Act to establish a Fishery Board for Scotland ; an Act for amending the Lunacy Regulation Acts.

Amidst the unceasing pressure of public business, private members fared ill. Several proposals to deal with the sale of intoxicating liquors were intended, but only a portion were submitted. Sir W. Lawson's Local Option resolution was put aside, and a Bill brought in by Lord Colin Campbell to enable the rate-payers in Scotland to fix the number of licensed houses in a district never progressed beyond a second reading. A Beer Adulteration Bill, promoted by Colonel Barne, was rejected. A Sunday Closing Bill, introduced by Mr. Stevenson, was talked out. Other Bills in the same direction were advanced a stage and remain for future

settlement. The advocates of the repeal of the Contagious Diseases Act were not successful in their annual effort. Previous to the adjournment, the Lords' committee on the law for the protection of young girls reported, suggesting more vigorous methods for suppressing the abominable traffic shown to be carried on between England and the continent. The majority of the committee that inquired into the operations of the Contagious Diseases Act, recommended its retention, but not extension.

There were a few changes in the *personnel* of the House of Commons during the session. On its opening night, a new writ for Westminster was issued on Lord Charles Russell's retirement, and Lord Algernon Percy was returned without opposition. Mr. C. Allsopp was elected for Taunton in the place of Sir W. Palliser, deceased; Mr. E. Sheil for Meath, in lieu of Michael Davitt, ineligible; Colonel Miles for Malmesbury replacing Mr. Powell, supposed to be dead; Mr. Jones Parry for Carnarvon Boroughs, vice Mr. Bulkeley Hughes, deceased; Mr. C. Acland for East Cornwall, vice Mr. Robartes raised to the peerage; Mr. E. J. Stanley for West Somerset, vice Major Vaughan, retired; Mr. J. Holden for the Northern Division of the West Riding, vice Lord Frederick Cavendish, murdered. Mr. Hutchinson resigning his seat shortly after the House rose for the recess, Mr. T. Shaw was elected for Halifax.

The adjournment took place on the 18th August. In explaining that the adjournment would be to the 24th October, Mr. Gladstone stated that the sole business for which Parliament would be called together for an autumn sitting at that date was Procedure. He would move that the subject should have precedence over all other business, and be continued without interruption, save for State emergency. He announced also that the Government intended to adhere to their resolutions in the form in which they were originally submitted.

On Thursday evening, the 31st August, the Queen left Osborne, where she had been staying since the 19th July, for Balmoral. On the Saturday preceding her departure, a number of men from H.M.S. *Excellent* explained to her Majesty the mode of working the Nordenfeldt, Gardiner, and Gatling guns, and the seven-pound field gun used during the bombardment of Alexandria. The Duke of Albany was at this time laid up with illness at Osborne, and was in consequence prevented from taking part in the celebration of the Preston Guild, which was held with great success during the week commencing September 4. On the 17th August her Majesty presented new colours to the Royal Berkshire Regiment, which suffered severely at Maiwand.

On Saturday afternoon, the 5th August, the *Bacchante* corvette, having on board Prince Edward and Prince George, sons of the Prince of Wales, arrived in Cowes Roads on her return from a long cruise in foreign parts. The Prince and Princess of Wales, with the three young Princesses, steamed out to meet the corvette off St. Alban's Head in the steam yacht, *Osborne*, the royal midshipmen acting as side officers at the foot of the gangway ladder, when the royal party boarded her. The *Bacchante* left Spithead on the 13th September, 1880, called at Portland and Ferrol, and was joined at Vigo on the 24th October by the flying squadron. From Vigo they proceeded to Port Santo, reached on the 5th November. The fleet, here completed by the addition of the *Tourmaline*, set sail for Monte Video, a call being made at St. Vincent on the 17th November for letters. The squadron crossed the line on the 28th November, when the ancient naval custom of paying honour to King Neptune was observed, the princes sharing with their brother midshipmen the rough usage of the rollicking sea-gods on board the *Bacchante*. On the 9th January the fleet left Monte Video for the Falkland Islands, but the original programme was changed on account of the Boer war. The squadron anchored at Cape Town on the 16th February, and, while upon this coast, the two princes visited Cetewayo. On the 9th April the squadron proceeded to Melbourne. Severe weather was experienced, and for five days the *Bacchante* was separated from the rest of the squadron. She had sustained damage to her rudder during the gale, and was forced to put into Albany. While at the Antipodes, the princes visited Adelaide, and travelled overland to Melbourne, where they arrived on the 25th June. They went up country, stayed at Government House, and on the 9th July sailed for Sydney. There the incessant round of festivities which from first to last characterised the stay of the *Bacchante* at all ports, was repeated, the princes being received with special enthusiasm by the colonists. On the 9th August the squadron sailed for Brisbane, anchoring on the 16th in Moreton Bay. On the 20th the ships left for Fiji, arriving at Levuka on the 3rd September. The next destination of the squadron was Yokohama, reached on the 21st October, after a passage of forty-two days. Thence the course was to Shanghai and Amoy. The *Bacchante* parted from the squadron and left Hongkong on the 31st December, homeward bound. Colombo was made on the 25th January, 1882, and on the 22nd March the princes visited the Khedive at Cairo. Sickness prevailing at Malta, the corvette avoided that island, and made for Jaffa, offering the princes an opportunity of seeing the principal places in the Holy Land, visited years ago by their



father. The subsequent places of call included Athens, Candia, the Ionian Islands, Palermo, and Gibraltar. On the Tuesday after their arrival home, the young princes were publicly confirmed by the Archbishop of Canterbury in the little church of Whippingham, Isle of Wight, in presence of the Queen, many members of the royal family, and a congregation of officers and seamen of every grade from the *Bacchante*. On Monday, the 14th August, the Prince and Princess of Wales received from the Mayor and Corporation of Portsmouth an address of congratulation on the safe return of the royal midshipmen, and a new concert-hall on Southsea Pier was opened in honour of the occasion. The Prince and Princess of Wales, with their children, then proceeded to London, and on Thursday, the 17th August, went to the continent, from which they returned September 13, accompanied by the King and Queen of the Hellenes.

As the summer advanced in Ireland, it seemed as if the labours of the Government were at length likely to bear the good fruit so earnestly hoped for, and so long withheld. Yet there lingered abundant cause for apprehension. A return was issued, early in July, of 182 prisoners still detained under the Coercion Acts. The monthly statistics of agrarian outrages, as submitted to Parliament, showed that during the month of June there had been 5 murders, 8 cases of firing at the person, 5 aggravated assaults, 3 assaults endangering life, 1 assault on bailiffs, 18 incendiary fires, 3 cases of taking forcible possession, 24 instances of killing, cutting, and maiming cattle, 3 robberies of arms, one case of administering unlawful oaths, 155 threatening letters, 18 cases of intimidation, 3 attacks on houses, 30 injuries to property, and 6 cases of firing into dwelling-houses. During the same month 515 families, consisting of 2,664 persons, were evicted, but 161 persons were re-admitted as tenants, and 1,238 as caretakers. Up to the 30th of June there had been 88,088 applications for fair rents under the Land Act, and of these 21,511 were decided. That the condition of the country, though promising improvement, was still deplorable, may be gathered from the suggestion made in a Dublin paper to the effect that, as unprecedentedly large rewards had failed to obtain convictions for crimes, owing to the fear of witnesses that they would be murdered by secret societies, a house of refuge should be erected, well walled and closely guarded, where persons might be kept in security till the reign of terror was over. An instructive Treasury minute issued in July gave definite information as to the arrears of rent outstanding in Ireland, and the sum which would meet the applications to be

incurred under the Arrears Bill. From this it appeared that the liability of the State extended to rents which should have been collected up to May or June, 1881. The maximum arrears of rent for 1880-81 were returned at about £2,800,000, and as rents were fairly paid up to 1878, it was supposed the antecedent arrears were considerably less. Reports of the Local Government Inspectors pointed to an average of arrears throughout the country of considerably less than two years' rent, and the constabulary returns showed a large percentage of estates in which there were no arrears. Mr. Gladstone, however, from these figures, considered himself justified in reckoning the moiety of arrears, which would constitute the liability of the State to November, 1880, at about £2,000,000.

During the summer months an agitation, which ultimately became an actual strike, fomented amongst the Irish constabulary, who demanded increased pay, quicker promotion, and the equalisation of pensions. The Inspector-General of Constabulary denounced the conduct of the men as disloyal, and the men repudiated the charge and demanded an apology. It was then explained that the word "disloyal" had not been used in an offensive sense. The Viceroy, on the 10th of August, while inspecting the Dublin constabulary, promised an immediate distribution of the money specially granted by Parliament, and stated that the Government were considering the question of increased pay. The agitation was suspended for a time, but it was renewed towards the end of the month. The leaders of the revived insubordination were the Constabulary at Limerick and the Dublin Metropolitan Police. The grievance of the Limerick men was somewhat vague, being chiefly that soldiers were quartered in the police barracks. Some of their number were dismissed. In Dublin the grievance was of a more substantial nature, the police there being highly aggrieved at exclusion from the special grant made by Parliament for extra duty during the trying labours of the three previous years. It seemed for a time as if Dublin would be without any police force, except the special constables enrolled by the Lord Lieutenant. On the 1st of September an almost general strike of the Dublin police followed the passing of resolutions at a meeting on the previous night, expressing dissatisfaction at the alleged neglect of their claims on the part of the Lord Lieutenant. A proclamation was issued by the Lord Lieutenant calling upon the citizens to come forward and undertake the duties of special constables. The mob took advantage of dissension in the ranks of the guardians of the peace, to indulge in rioting on their own account, and fifty men of the 97th Regiment had the

unpleasant duty of scattering the people before their fixed bayonets. Rioting was resumed during the two following days, but, the Riot Act being read, the streets were cleared by the military. These riots were undoubtedly instigated by city ruffians, who, during the turmoil, committed burglaries right and left, waylaying peaceable men, women, and children, and assaulting the public wherever they met them. The ringleaders in the police force apologised for the breach of discipline of which they had been guilty, and appealed to the Lord Lieutenant to forgive them. By a policy of firmness, tempered with judicious conciliation, the authorities soon put an end to the passing difficulty.

On the 10th of August the Ladies' Land League was dissolved, and the announcement made that its work would be undertaken by a new organisation. A fresh cause of public excitement was given on the 16th of August by the sentencing to three months' imprisonment of Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, M.P., High Sheriff of Dublin, and proprietor of the *Freeman's Journal*, for contempt of court. A man named Hynes had been tried for murder, and sentenced to death. In the *Freeman's Journal* appeared a letter insinuating that the jury were under the influence of drink on the night previous to the conviction, and an article commenting upon the trial. An article had also appeared charging the representatives of the Crown with setting aside Catholic jurymen, in order to pack the juries with Protestants. In consequence of these articles Mr. Justice Lawson, in the Dublin Commission Court, sentenced Mr. Gray to be imprisoned for three months, to pay a fine of £500, and at the expiration of his imprisonment to find bail, himself in £5,000, and two sureties in £2,500 each. The foreman of the jury, on behalf of his fellows, indignantly denied the charges of drunkenness. The numerous friends of Mr. Gray strove hard for his release, and the sympathisers with the convict Hynes endeavoured to quash the verdict because of the alleged condition of the jury. These movements failing, a more strenuous agitation was inaugurated to obtain the hon. member's release, but to check the intense excitement a proclamation, signed by Mr. Dawson, the Lord Mayor, Mr. Parnell, Mr. Dillon, and Mr. Davitt, was issued in Dublin, calling upon the people to exercise prudence and self-control. The Irish Members of Parliament who were then in Dublin hastened to Westminster, appealed to the Government, and severely condemned the action of the judge, but the sentence was not interfered with. Simultaneously a strong effort was made to obtain respite for the convict Hynes. He had been found guilty of the murder of an aged herdsman named Doloughy, and his trial was the second instituted under the

Crime Prevention Act. The murder, however, was one of marked brutality, and it being resolved that the law should take its course, the convict was duly executed by the English hangman, who had travelled to Ireland under police protection for the purpose.

The exhibition of Irish arts and manufactures, to which a passing reference was made in Chapter I., was opened in Dublin by Mr. Dawson, M.P., the Lord Mayor, on the 15th of August, Mr. Parnell and his Parliamentary followers being present. On the same day, previous to the opening of the exhibition, the O'Connell statue was unveiled in Sackville Street. Orations suitable to the occasion were made by the Lord Mayor and Mr. Parnell. The Lord Mayor, who officiated at the opening ceremony at the exhibition, observed that it was not desired to exclude the products or manufactures of other lands, but rather to encourage and develop their own. The day was observed as a general holiday in Dublin. There were several enthusiastic and jubilant processions, and in spite of the great crowds of people, everything passed off pleasantly, though soldiers were held in readiness, in anticipation of threatened disturbances. On the following day Messrs. Parnell and Dillon attended a special meeting of the Corporation, and there received the freedom of the city, enclosed in caskets of Irish manufacture.

While Mr. Gray's imprisonment for contempt of court was still a subject of warm controversy, subscriptions being started to pay the fine, and the Dublin Corporation and other public bodies holding meetings and passing resolutions of sympathy with him, the dismay of the three kingdoms was excited by yet another crime, equalling in its wholesale atrocity anything that had gone before. This was the assassination *en bloc* of a family of five persons in Connemara. The murdered persons were John Joyce, his wife, mother, daughter, and son. The hapless people lived not far from Lough Corrib, and were supposed to have given the police information during the inquiries into the murder of Lord Ardilaun's bailiffs, whose bodies were found in Lough Mask. The family lived in the wild and mountainous region of Connemara, known as the Joyce country, and about forty miles from Galway. On the midnight of the 17th of August their humble habitation was entered by a body of men, disguised and armed. The head of the family was dragged from his bed and shot dead upon the spot; his wife, mother, and daughter attempting to protect him, were also promptly murdered; and two boys who were in the room were dangerously wounded. One of the poor lads died the next day, but the other lived, and afterwards assisted the police in the apprehension of a gang of ruffians. The heartless destruction of these

miserably poor farming people, who were known amongst their equally poverty-stricken neighbours as being hard-working and in-offensive, aroused outspoken detestation of the butchery, even amongst the disloyal people who had previously resisted the law. They cordially assisted the authorities in tracking down the offenders. Fifteen arrests were made, and it was regarded as some small measure of consolation that eye-witnesses came forward who were not afraid to openly denounce and give evidence against the prisoners. The entire district was anxious to repudiate the diabolical slaughter of inoffensive people, and assisted the police by every method in their power. The chief evidence of the crime was furnished by a farmer who, on the night of the murder, was awakened by the barking of a dog. Looking out, he saw six men approaching his house, and suspecting mischief, he lay down amongst the potato-stalks in his garden and scrutinised them as they passed by. More than ever fearing that they were bent upon some nefarious project, he hastened to his brother's house, about a quarter of a mile distant, roused him and his son, and thus accompanied, stealthily followed, crouching behind walls or in ditches to avoid discovery. The six men halted at an empty house, and shortly afterwards re-appeared, joined by four others. The augmented gang directed their steps across a field towards Maanstrassna, where the homestead of the Joyce family was situated. They advanced towards the dwelling by devious ways, stealthily followed by the party of three. While the ten men went into the house the amateur detectives concealed themselves in bushes at the bottom of the garden. In a few moments reports of firearms were heard, and heavy blows as if from bludgeons, mingled with shrieks of agony. Terror-stricken, the three men now took to their heels, returned home, and gave information to the police. The ten men had, according to their statement, been long known to them, and had been clearly identified as they passed by to their sanguinary work. Four of the murderous gang bore, as do so many of the population of that part of Connemara, the surname of the unfortunate Joyce.

A semi-political organisation, under the name of the Irish Labour and Industrial Union, was formed in Dublin on the 21st of August. Its object was to enable labourers to "raise their social condition and improve themselves by organisation, and by the assistance of all classes around them." At the meeting convened to establish this new league there were present Mr. Justin McCarthy, M.P., in the chair, Messrs. Parnell, Dillon, Biggar, Sexton, Redmond, Healy, and Leamy. An executive committee was formed and steps taken to construct a constitution and rules

for organisation. The new organisation seeks to amalgamate under one control the numerous societies in existence for the relief of Irish distress, and achievement of "national" objects.

In September the Lord Lieutenant made a tour through the west of Ireland, and was well received. In reply to some of the addresses presented, he spoke hopefully of the prospects of the country. On the 30th of September the Coercion Acts ceased operation, and on the same day, in closing the special commission in Dublin, Mr. Justice Lawson ordered the release of Mr. Gray, M.P., on payment of the fine imposed on the 16th of August.

A Liberty and Property Defence League was formed on the 5th July, at a meeting held at the Westminster Palace Hotel, under the presidency of Lord Elcho, its object being the defence of individual liberty and property against undue interference on the part of the State. Lord Shaftesbury, Earl Grey, Lord Bramwell, and Lord Penzance wrote letters of a friendly nature to the project, and it was announced that the Association of Principals of Private Schools, the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom, the General Shipowners' Society, the Shipmasters' Society, the Incorporated Society of Licensed Victuallers, the Licensed Victuallers Protection Society, the Mining Association of Great Britain, the Liverpool House and Landowners' Defence Association, the Music Hall Proprietors' Protection Association, the National Pawnbrokers' Defence Association, and the Railway Association had signified agreement with the object of the society. Lord Elcho explained that the organisation would be wholly apart from party or political considerations. The measures passed during the previous ten years by both parties in the State had not been strictly in accordance with the rights of full-grown Englishmen, capable of managing their own affairs, and, in the belief that the tendency of modern legislation was to interfere unduly with individual liberty, and to deal with property without awarding fair compensation, the present movement was inaugurated with the view of getting the whole of the existing protective societies into one focus. The doctrine by which the supporters of the organisation were asked to stand was—Self-help *versus* State interference.

The annual dinner of the Cobden Club, at Willis's Rooms, on the 1st July, was eminently successful. The Earl of Derby presided, supported by the Earl of Kimberley, the Earl of Dalhousie, Viscount Powerscourt, Lord Houghton, and a large number of members of Parliament, and representatives of Free Trade from continental countries, the United States, Canada, and the Aus-

tralian colonies. The toast of the evening, "Prosperity to the Cobden Club," was proposed by Lord Derby in an able speech in defence of Free Trade, the other speakers being Sir Charles Dilke, M. de Lesseps, Mr. Cyrus Field, M. Auguste Couvreur, of Belgium, Leu Shi Ting, Lord Kimberley, Mr. R. Murray Smith and Mr. Jeffray, of Victoria, Mr. Burke, of Jamaica, Sir James Caird, Lord Dalhousie, and Mr. T. B. Potter, M.P.

The Channel Tunnel works, promoted by the South-Eastern Railway Company, were suspended in the early part of July. During the summer special trains had every week conveyed numbers of peers and commoners, and distinguished visitors from the Continent and America, to the mouth of the works west of Dover, where, under the guidance of Sir Edward Watkin, M.P., they explored the tunnel and witnessed the boring operations. By July the heading had been advanced about 1,900 yards in a direction slanting from a little beyond the Shakespeare Cliff towards the Admiralty Pier. By one section of the public a Channel tunnel was regarded as a work undertaken in the interests of humanity; by another section as a danger to insular security. The military authorities had long expressed a decided opinion that a Channel tunnel would endanger the safety of the country in time of war, and experts had given evidence to that effect before a War Office Committee. On Saturday, the 1st July, M. de Lesseps and a number of French engineers and scientific men inspected the tunnel, and at a luncheon subsequently given in a marquee near the shaft, Sir Edward Watkin informed the company that he had just been cited to answer before a court of law, at the instigation of the President of the Board of Trade, for carrying out the experiments. The Attorney-General had applied to the Court of Chancery for an injunction against the South-Eastern Railway Company, but by consent an order was issued for an inspection by the Board of Trade, on the understanding that no work should be carried on in the bed of the sea until the action had been determined. The matter came before Parliament towards the close of the session. There were two Channel Tunnel Bills before Parliament, but on the motion of Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, they were discharged, the right hon. gentleman stating that the Government had decided early next session to propose the appointment of a joint committee to consider the whole matter.

Delegates of miners' permanent societies, and persons interested in movements for the relief of the distress occasioned by accidents in mines, held their fourth annual conference in London during the second week in July, under the presidency of the Earl of

Crawford and Balcarres. The report and the speeches made showed that the central association operated in all the mining districts of England and Wales, and that during the year 1881 the members and the funds had largely increased. The number of widows receiving annuities had increased from 864 to 1,031 ; the number of children receiving relief, from 1,830 to 2,118 ; and the number of miners suffering from disablements, from 22,153 to 23,542. Towards the end of August the Miners' National Conference was held at Manchester—Mr. Thomas Burt, M.P., presiding. The delegates in attendance represented 270,000 British miners. It appeared from the inaugural address of the president, that in the previous year there had been 1,000 lives lost in the mines, and that during the previous thirty years, more than 32,900 lives had been sacrificed in connection with mining operations. Of this number, 12,888 were due to falls of roofs and sides. During the conference, a resolution was passed in favour of the appointment of a minister of mines, and, after some close discussion, a motion was adopted urging that the powers to prosecute under the Mines Act should be granted to a common informer, and not kept exclusively in the hands of an Inspector or the Secretary of State. Before the conference broke up, it was resolved that if the owners did not increase the men's wages, a "general stand" should be taken against the employers.

The volunteer camps were held, according to custom, during the months of July and August. The annual prize meeting of the National Rifle Association began on Saturday, July 8th, on the old camping-ground at Wimbledon. The Queen's prize, which is always the chief event of the Wimbledon meeting, brought out the usual sixty competitors, and in the presence of the Prince and Princess of Wales the prize was won by Sergeant Lawrence, of the 1st Dumbarton (Helensburgh) Corps, and a member of the staff of *The Dumbarton Herald*. He had made phenomenally good shooting throughout. The young Scotchman was cheered heartily when the Princess of Wales pinned the gold badge on his arm, and he was carried in triumph through the camp. The artillery volunteers camped at Shoeburyness in the early part of August, the Queen's Prize being won by the 2nd Detachment (Alnwick) of the 2nd Northumberland Corps. The volunteer engineers' camp was formed, as on previous years, at Chatham.

Posthumous honours, often so long delayed, were proposed during July to two worthies of bygone times. A committee was formed in the City to obtain subscriptions towards the erection of an appropriate memorial to Samuel Pepys in the church of St.



Olave's, Hart Street, with which the quaint chronicler was intimately connected, and in which he was buried. During the same month, an influential meeting at the Mansion House decided upon erecting a monument in memory of Sir Francis Drake. The first resolution, moved by the Earl of Devon and seconded by Mr. Macliver, M.P., set forth the objects of the movement in the following terms:—"That the patriotic and ever-memorable services of Sir Francis Drake during the Elizabethan period, in seeking to free his country from the dominating power of Spain and in helping to open the commerce of the world, demand the grateful recognition of Englishmen on this the three hundredth anniversary of his greatest exploit, the circumnavigation of the globe." The second resolution, moved by the Earl of Mount Edgcombe, and seconded by Mr. Alderman Cotton, M.P., indicated the details of the scheme as follows:—"That a national memorial commemorative of the services of Sir Francis Drake will most appropriately be erected on the far-famed Plymouth Hoe, which was so closely identified with the great historical events in which Drake took a leading part."

The Chinese merchants and residents in London, Manchester, and Liverpool, on the 28th of July sent a deputation 200 strong to wait upon Sir John Pope Hennessy, Governor of Hongkong, who was at the time staying in London. The address presented expressed the thanks of the Chinese for the recipient's policy towards their countrymen in Hongkong, and for his endeavours to give the Chinese a voice in the government of the colony. The gentleman who enunciated the views of the deputation stated that there was a Chinese club in London which numbered more than 100 members, and they had instructed him to say that the loyalty of the Chinese to the British crown had increased under Sir John Pope Hennessy's administration, and that the Chinese of British descent looked up to him as a "just judge and father." A few days later a deputation of members of Parliament and members of the Aborigines Protection Society also presented an address of congratulation and thanks to Sir John Pope Hennessy for his administration as Governor of Hongkong. On the 17th of August and three following days a conference of Chinese merchants in England was held in the Chinese Club in London, and amongst the resolutions passed was one regretting the action of the governments of the United States and Queensland against Chinese immigration. It was decided to ask for the appointment of a Chinese consul to London, and to recommend emigration from China to Cyprus and England. The opium trade was condemned as a curse to China

The British Association celebrated its 52nd annual meeting this year at Southampton, commencing upon the 23rd of August. Dr. Siemens, the eminent electrician, was president of the year. In the geographical section M. de Tschihatcheff and Mr. E. O'Donovan read papers, the former on the geological age of the deserts, the latter on his experiences while a captive at Merv. It was resolved to accept the invitation received from Canada, and to hold the meeting for 1884 at Montreal. The British Archaeological Society's annual congress was held at Plymouth during the first week of September. The Trades' Unions Congress opened at Manchester on September 18th, Mr. R. Austin being president. The twenty-fifth Social Science Congress, under the presidency of Mr. G. W. Hastings, M.P., began in Nottingham on the 20th of September; and the Congress of the Sanitary Institute at Newcastle on September 26th, Captain Galton, president.

The royal assent was given early in July to a measure by which the East and West India Dock Company were empowered to construct deepwater docks opposite Gravesend, and a large company proceeded to Tilbury on Saturday, the 8th of July, to witness the commencement of the works, which are to consist of a tunnel under the Thames between the Tilbury Railway and the lines on the south side of the river. Accommodation will be provided for vessels of the deepest draught, the intention being to make the Port of London, so far as it is represented by the docks, independent of tides. On the 9th of September a new means of communication with the Continent was provided by the opening of the Hundred of Hoo Railway, from Gravesend to Port Victoria, Isle of Grain, opposite Sheerness.

A deputation of Maori chiefs and gentlemen interested in the affairs of New Zealand was introduced on July 17th, by the Bishop of Nelson, to Lord Kimberley, at the Colonial Office. The three chiefs severally addressed the noble earl, through an interpreter, and presented a memorial complaining of inequitable treatment in respect to land. Lord Kimberley informed the Maori gentlemen that in this matter it was necessary for the Queen to be advised by the local government, and that after the great troubles which had happened in New Zealand their affairs would be better managed by people on the spot than by legislators living a long way off. He wished it to be understood that this did not imply that the Queen did not take an interest in the welfare of her Maori subjects; on the contrary it was her desire to promote their welfare that had led her to delegate powers to the Colonial Government.

Her Majesty's Ministers were entertained by the Lord Mayor

at the Mansion House, on Wednesday evening, August 9th, and Lord Northbrook, in reply to the toast of "the Navy," expressed the indebtedness of the country to the mercantile marine for the means of transport afforded by them to the expedition to Egypt. Mr. Gladstone replied to the toast of "Her Majesty's Ministers," remarking, upon the Egyptian question, that the interests to be defended in Egypt were not those of England alone, but interests common to every state in Europe and the whole civilised world, since the commerce of the world depended upon the passage through Egypt, which had become the great gate between the eastern and western hemispheres. On the afternoon of this day Mr. Bruce Joy's statue of Mr. Gladstone, presented by Mr. Theodore Bryant to the inhabitants of East London, was unveiled by Lord Carlingford amid great enthusiasm. The Prime Minister himself was not present, but amongst the spectators on the platform were members of the right hon. gentleman's family, the Earl and Countess Granville, and Mr. Bryce, M.P.

The visit of Cetewayo to this country created a moderate amount of interest, which was, however, kept in check by the Zulu king's dislike of crowds and ceremonies. He arrived at Plymouth on Thursday, August 3rd, in the Union Company's steamer *Arab*. He was accompanied by his cousin and prime minister, and two native councillors who had taken a prominent part in the Zulu war. Cetewayo landed at Southampton, and came at once to London, where he occupied a private house that had been prepared for him and his followers by the Government, in Melbury Terrace, Holland Park. A formal interview was granted him with Earl Kimberley at the Colonial Office, and he was visited by many members of Parliament who had supported his cause in Parliament. Cetewayo, after his interview with the Secretary of State for the Colonies, visited Mr. Gladstone in Downing Street, and pleaded strongly for his restoration in Zululand. The king saw a few of the sights of London, and on Tuesday, the 15th August, an announcement was made in Parliament of the determination of the Government to restore him to a part of his dominions on certain conditions. Cetewayo, towards the latter end of his stay, visited the Queen at Osborne, and the Prince and Princess of Wales at Marlborough House. He was waited upon by deputations from the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, to whom he stated that neither slavery nor the slave trade prevailed in Zululand; and from the Temperance League, with whose representations, as to the evil effects of drink, he seemed heartily to concur, stating that the proclamation which prohibited the introduction of ardent spirits into his country

would be renewed on his restoration. On the 1st September, Cetewayo and his followers left London for Southampton, and departed from this country on board the *Nubian*. A remarkable letter, dated August 28th, was published in the *Times*, from the Maharajah Dhuleep Singh, asking that if the same generosity as that bestowed upon King Cetewayo were not lavished upon him, yet that some magnanimity might be shown towards him by "this great Christian empire." The Maharajah detailed at length the grounds of complaints he had against the British Government, and towards the conclusion of his letter said: "If one righteous man was found in the two most wicked cities of the world, I pray God that at least one honourable, just, and noble Englishman may be forthcoming out of this Christian land of liberty and justice to advocate my cause in Parliament; otherwise what chance have I of obtaining justice, considering that my despoiler, guardian, judge, advocate, and jury is the British nation itself?"

The merchant steamer *Valhalla* of West Hartlepool, on July 22nd, ran into the schooner yacht *Mayflower* off Dungeness, passing completely through her, so that she sank in two separate pieces. Four gentlemen who were cruising on board the yacht were saved, but the captain and three seamen were drowned. A Board of Trade inquiry into this collision was held, and the court found that the yacht was navigated in a proper and seamanlike manner, and that the collision was owing to the wrongful act of the mate of the *Valhalla*. This officer's certificate was accordingly suspended for twelve months. Through the Foreign Office a gold medal was sent by the French Government to the first and second coxswains, and a silver medal to the eleven men forming the crew of the *Albert Edward* lifeboat, for rescuing the crew of a French fishing lugger on the 23rd October previously. During August particulars reached England of the wreck of the steamship *Fleurs Castile*, near Cape Guardafui, on the 9th July. The vessel was bound from Hankow for London. Several of the men were drowned; but the natives, who have a bad general reputation for the treatment of shipwrecked men, on this occasion behaved with signal kindness, supplying the rescued seamen with rice and dates. In hazy weather, on the night of August 17th, the *Woodstock* steamer ran into the *Adventurer* smack, six of whose crew were drowned. During August the *Armenian* steamer, of Liverpool, was given up for lost. She sailed from Middlesborough for the Baltic with a crew of twenty-three hands in addition to the captain and his wife.

Great delight was manifested at the report that, on Sunday morning, the 20th August, the *Hope*, steam whale-ship, under the

command of Sir Allen Young, the Arctic traveller, had arrived at Peterhead, having on board Mr. Leigh Smith and the crew of the *Eira*, the Arctic navigators, for whose relief a search expedition had been despatched. The gallant explorers had lost their ship in Franz Josef Land, and returned in their boats to the straits where they were found. The *Eira* steamed into the Arctic regions through pack ice on the 13th July, 1881. Having put up a storehouse on August 16th, they started to look for the lost American vessel *Jeanette*, but within five days were nipped between land floe and pack ice one mile east of Cape Flora. The vessel sank. Some of the provisions were saved, and the explorers built a hut of turf and stones in which they wintered. As only meat enough for about two months was saved from the *Eira*, the food of the party for ten months largely consisted of the wild beasts procured by hunting, and to this the medical officer in charge of the expedition attributed the escape from scurvy. Fortunately there were no cases of frost-bite, and the health of the men on the whole was good. The shipwrecked people left their winter quarters on June 21st, in two whale-boats and two walrus-boats, and sailed eighty miles south without seeing any ice. They reached Matotchkin Straits on the 2nd August, and were picked up by the *Hope* on the following day.

A number of curious statistics in connection with the British postal service were given in the twenty-eighth annual report of the Postmaster-General. During the Christmas week of 1881, nearly 12,500,000 letters and packets were dealt with in the central office, including  $4\frac{1}{2}$  tons of registered letters. For some years, it seemed, the number of valentines despatched from the central office had unaccountably decreased, but although in 1880 the number was only 534,000, in 1881 they increased to 1,634,000. The total estimated number of letters, post-cards, book packets, and newspapers received in the United Kingdom from abroad during the year was roughly calculated at 69,000,000, and the number despatched from the British Islands at about 87,000,000. The telegraph messages showed the remarkable increase of 1,933,879 over the previous year, the number of messages sent through the office during the year being 31,345,861. The new postal orders had answered remarkably well, the year's issue amounting to 4,462,720, representing a money value of £2,006,917, although the value of the orders rarely exceeded 20s. Putting departmental details aside, the gross post-office revenue for the year was £9,028,374, the net revenue showing, notwithstanding increased expenditure, an increase of £32,396 on the previous year.

# THE COLONIES AND INDIA.

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## CHAPTER I.

### CANADA.

IN the general history of the year 1882, not the least attractive and interesting topic should appear to British readers that of the progress of those enterprising and energetic communities on distant shores beyond the Atlantic and to the Far West, or in the farthest region of the South-East beyond the Indian Ocean, which promise to display in their maturity the characteristics of English social life, favoured by the vast room for expansion of its industrial abode, and by the abundance of natural resources. The United States of America are not at present included in this contemplation ; but the fact that they have now a population of fifty millions, while that of Great Britain and Ireland is thirty-six millions, seems to give an indication of the probable future growth of the British colonies, which already contain seven and a-half millions of people of European race. Another half century may be expected to raise the last-mentioned number to an equality, at least, with the present population of the United Kingdom ; and the example of two or three successive generations in Australia, and of a longer colonial history in Canada, has proved that the vigorous bodily and mental faculties of our nation, and its most valuable moral qualities, are in no way impaired either by the climate of those countries, or by any other circumstances in their settlement and condition. This affords, we hope and trust, a tolerably sure prospect that the collective force of the English nationality, accompanied by all that we most highly prize in the habits and manners, the laws and institutions of our countrymen, will be fairly doubled in the life-time of our youngest children now living ; and by such means, if not by direct conquest, England will hereafter play the leading part in the civilisation of the world. No other European nation has a similar prospect before it, however great in military power and formidable to its immediate rivals ; and the patriotic sentiment of Englishmen may well be satisfied with this anticipation of a future national ascendancy over mankind, won by the innocent and beneficent victories of colonisation in the remotest

waste places of the earth. In the present review of Colonial history during the past twelve months, no stirring events will here be related; for neither by war, by revolt of native tribes, nor by any other disastrous struggle has the peace of our colonists been disturbed; not even in South Africa, since the Transvaal was relinquished by the Queen's Government, and since the Cape Government desisted from its futile campaign on the Basuto frontier. Reports of fighting between parties of the Boers and some of the Kaffirs outside of colonial jurisdiction have been presumed to raise a question of the action that should be taken by the Imperial Government through its High Commissioner; but with this, happily for themselves, the colonists have nothing to do. In the other main regions of British colonisation which we shall successively regard—in Canada, in Australia, and in New Zealand, finally in the West Indies and all the tropical regions—it has been a year of peace; but a year nevertheless of considerable activity and of substantial progress.

**Canada.**—The Dominion of Canada, under its Federal Constitution bestowed in 1867, comprises the older British North American Provinces of Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island; and those of more recent settlement in the Great West—namely, the new Province of Manitoba, the immense Northwest Territory, and the Province of British Columbia, including Vancouver Island, on the western shore of the continent. It extends across America from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Its provinces to the east of a central line dividing the width of the continent include the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, with the Acadia or Nova Scotia peninsula and neighbouring islands, the banks of the River St. Lawrence, and the northern and eastern shores of four great lakes—namely, Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior. These parts of Canada (applying the old name to the entire present Dominion) thus reach from the open Atlantic halfway across North America, from the 60th to the 90th degree of west longitude, to the middle of the continental interior. Yet they belong to a region the physical unity of which is shown by the flowing eastward of all its waters, even from the head of Lake Superior, to the ocean through the St. Lawrence. It is a fact of the greatest importance to colonial development, in connection with this, that by the commercial navigation of those far inland waters, aided by canals to avoid the Falls of Niagara and the Rapids of the St. Lawrence, their remotest ports are in communication with the sea that carries North American traffic to and from the European world. Beyond or behind this eastern

half of the Canadian Dominion which fronts the Atlantic, and physically marked off from it by a rugged tract of country above Lake Superior, there begins the middle region, that of Manitoba and the North-West Territory, extending to the Rocky Mountains. Still further west, beyond the Rocky Mountains, is the forest-covered highland region of British Columbia, with its spacious and commodious harbours on the Pacific Coast, or in the straits and channels dividing the large island of Vancouver from the mainland shore.

These features of physical geography must be kept in mind, with some general recollection of the map, such as we have tried to sketch, if we would comprehend the social and political affairs of the Dominion during any given period. It is not worth while to examine the details of mere provincial administration. Each of the Provinces has its Lieutenant-Governor, its elective Legislative Assembly, and, with one or two exceptions, its Legislative Council; and its responsible Executive Ministry. All the towns and rural townships or districts, in the fully constituted Provinces, enjoy their municipal or local self-government. But our present notice must be confined rather to the main topics that have been dealt with by the Dominion Government and Parliament at Ottawa. These have turned, as in preceding years, and as they probably will for years to come, upon a few broad practical questions, chiefly of an economic character, arising out of the geographical situation of Canada.

There are two subjects of the greatest importance to the majority of colonists, upon which the Canadian Ministry, with Sir John Macdonald at its head, appealed this year to the test of a general election of the Dominion House of Commons. One is that which they sometimes call the "National Policy," which is neither more nor less than a tariff question. The other is that of the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

The tariff question, upon which Sir John Macdonald, the leader of the Conservative party, came into office in October, 1878, is one of fiscal protection for all sorts of Canadian products—not against British products, but against those of the adjacent American Republic. The idea of this so-called "National Policy" is that the Canadian territories and populations have such varied capabilities of production—agricultural, manufacturing, mineral and metallurgical, besides their unequalled fisheries and forests—that as a nation, in the economic point of view, Canada is able to stand alone. It is not the idea of political independence, at least not in the sense of an inclination to loosen the tie which gently binds her to the sovereignty of Great Britain. On the



contrary, the Canadian Protectionists are Conservatives, and the staunchest of loyalists. They have been apt sometimes to think and speak of the Protective Tariff as a measure of defence for their political nationality, as well as for their material interests. By this it was only meant to impute to their party opponents, who advocated free trade with the United States, a disposition thereby to pave the way for ultimate annexation. There is not really, so far as we know, any such disposition among respectable Liberal politicians in Canada. The National Policy is only to insist upon the expediency of preserving the Canadian market for home-grown or home-made products by keeping out those of the United States. Canada and Great Britain together, it is thought, can supply all that Canada wants from the northern latitudes of the globe. As for that which comes from tropical latitudes, Canada is now establishing direct steamship traffic with the West Indies, Brazil, and Spanish South America, from which she can fetch her own supply. The Colony is not disposed, however, to shut out the staple articles of British manufacture, but lays upon them, for the sake of revenue, duties which have no doubt been seriously felt.

In proroguing, on May 17th, this year's Session of the Dominion Parliament at Ottawa, which had assembled on February 9th, the Marquis of Lorne, the Governor-General, congratulated them upon the prosperous state of the country. His Excellency added: "I am advised that this progress would have been still greater were it not that capitalists hesitated to embark their means in undertakings which would be injured, if not destroyed, by a change in the trade and fiscal policy adopted in 1879. In order therefore to give the people, without delay, an opportunity of expressing their deliberate opinion on this policy, it is my intention to cause this Parliament to be dissolved at an early date." The elections for the new House of Commons took place in June; and the result was to give the ministry of Sir John Macdonald a majority of sixty in a House of two hundred and eleven members. Seven of their leading opponents, the ex-Ministers, now lost their seats. This seems to be regarded as a decisive triumph of the National Policy in its appeal to the popular suffrage. The merits of that policy will not here be argued upon. In justice to its loyal and conservative supporters, we can but take note of their manifest wish to have it understood in England that they do not intend or believe it to be injurious to our own manufactures. The tariff figures may seem hard upon us, with *ad valorem* duties of twenty and twenty-five per cent. on cotton yarns, sixteen per cent. on cotton cloth, thirty per cent. on woollens, and as much on most kinds of hardware. But the actual result of their operation

has been to transfer from the United States' manufacturer to the British manufacturer an increasing proportion of the trade in all such articles in Canada. Under the lower tariff, before 1879, the proportion of Canadian imports from Great Britain was steadily declining, while the proportion from the United States was increasing in a greater ratio. We now learn that since the change of Canadian fiscal policy, the relative positions of Great Britain and of the United States in that market, so far as their own products are concerned, have been just reversed. The proportion of imports from the United Kingdom, that is to say, of British manufactures, has become greater than the proportion of American products had previously been; while the American imports have declined to a less proportion than that of the British goods taken before. This effect seems to have been instantly felt; so that, in 1880, the first year of the National Policy, there was an increase of nearly one million sterling in the value of the British imports into Canada, with a decrease of three millions in those from the United States. In the last year, ending June 30th, 1882, the imports from Great Britain amounted to the value of forty-three and a-half million dollars, which may be compared with the sum of thirty-one million dollars put down to that score in 1879. British trade has, indeed, suffered a certain loss in the Canadian market for such articles as sugar and tea, which were formerly obtained from England, but which Canada now gets directly from Brazil and the West Indies, or from China. But there has been no actual direct loss to the British manufacturing interest. One of the indirect objects of this policy was to retain in Canada large numbers of the non-agricultural emigrants from Europe, more especially persons having a small capital and some knowledge of business other than farming, who used to move across the frontier into the United States. Again, the long Canadian winter, forbidding the employment of hired agricultural labourers through the entire year, might seem to make it especially desirable to provide indoor work for that season, if a large population is to be permanently kept together. Factories and workshops appear to be a social necessity for the eastern provinces of Canada, which certainly possess, including Nova Scotia, a great abundance of the materials of manufacturing prosperity. In the long run there can be but little doubt that a free-trade policy will be demanded by the wants of the purely agricultural North-West Territory, when it shall have become, like the Prairie States of the Union, the home of millions of simple farmers who will desire to purchase their clothing and tools at the least price. In the mean time, while

Manitoba is still but a lusty infant, and the occupation of the vast plains beyond has only recently begun, the ascendancy of eastern commercial and manufacturing interests in the National Policy seems to be willingly accepted by the western settlers. The creed of the economic self-sufficiency of the Dominion, and the unity of social welfare throughout all parts of its enormous extent, is associated with a respectable feeling of patriotism. It finds favour with the older Provinces, more especially those of Ontario and Nova Scotia, which have ever cherished an almost passionate loyalty to the British connection; and their views of policy are still prevailing. These are some of the grounds for the present state of colonial opinion upon the subject above noticed.

The Canadian Pacific Railway, which is the other topic of political concernment in these times, is a magnificent enterprise, long ago projected, but the realisation of which, now assured and partly worked out, is likewise a visible token of the National Policy. It is at once the grandest symbol and mightiest instrument of that unity between all the Provinces and territories, from ocean to ocean, the mere thought of which may well inspire an ennobling sentiment in Canadian breasts. The Conservative Premier, Sir John Macdonald, has the honour of being the Minister under whose government this great work has been actually commenced; and the Marquis of Lorne, if he continues to hold the Vice-Royalty during the ordinary term of five years, with her Royal Highness Princess Louise, will have seen from its beginning the better part accomplished. It was in January, 1881, that the Government contract with the syndicate of promoters was laid before the Dominion Legislature. The Opposition party were not satisfied. They objected to the terms of remuneration for the Company which was to be entrusted not only with its construction but with its maintenance and working for ever. The Company would undertake to construct a line of two thousand miles before 1891, for which the Government would pay them a subsidy of twenty-five million dollars—say five millions sterling—and would give them twenty-five million acres of land along the line. It was estimated that the pecuniary value of these concessions, the land with the money, would be not less than seventy-five million dollars, or fifteen millions sterling. The Opposition party considered this too much; and there was a rival company talked of, which would be satisfied with twenty million dollars and twenty million acres, and which would not mind paying import duties on all its materials, steel rails and the like, as well as all local taxation, and a percentage of five or ten per cent. on its future gross earnings.

It is more than doubtful whether any company would really have put up with these terms ; but the fact that they were spoken of shows the degree of public confidence that was felt in the prospects of the undertaking. A more considerable objection is still felt to the vast monopoly of railway construction for Manitoba and the North-West Territories, which is bestowed upon a single company. All the lines previously begun in that direction have been handed over by the Government to the Canadian Pacific Company, which alone will be empowered to make branch lines for twenty years to come. Nevertheless, it seemed good last year to a majority of 128 against 49 in the Dominion House of Commons to pass the great Railway Bill, and no time has since been lost in getting on with the work. It is, we have remarked, one of national policy, and the history of its adoption by the Dominion Government has not less genuine political interest than that of military conquests gained by ambitious empires of the old world. In 1870, the new Canadian Federation purchased of the old Hudson's Bay Company their territorial sovereignty over half the width of North America. In the very next year, British Columbia, on the Pacific side, joined the Confederation of Provinces upon the faith of a promise that, within ten years, there should be a railway to connect the shores of the two oceans. More than ten years have elapsed, with the conflict of rival Ministries and parties in Canada, of Mr. Alexander Mackenzie and Sir John Macdonald, alternately in and out of office, tossing this great subject to and fro between them. It is true that much had been done by Government in preliminary surveys, and in procuring the construction of several short lines, which will serve to bring the north shore of Lake Superior, and the Red River of Manitoba, within reach of the Canadian railway system. About seven hundred miles of railroad could thus be transferred ready made to the Canadian Pacific Company, including the Canada central line, which runs from Brockville, on the St. Lawrence, through Ottawa, the Dominion capital, and thence westward to Lake Nipissing, above Georgian Bay, Lake Huron. Lake Nipissing is the starting point of the first section of the Canadian Pacific Railway. This part of the grand continental line runs through the north-west portion of the Province of Ontario, and along the northern shore of Lake Superior, a length of 650 miles, to Thunder Bay, the most westerly Canadian port of that lake. Its construction has now been finished, and it was expected to be opened for traffic before the close of this year. We may say, therefore, that Canada has actually provided herself with a complete railway system, admirably convenient for the whole of those Provinces on the great American

lakes and on the St. Lawrence, which cover the eastern half of the continent. Their wonderful system of communication by the chain of inland waters extending through that noble river to the Atlantic has been noticed as the gift of nature, improved and perfected by art in the Welland, St. Lawrence, and Rideau Canals. But this navigation is closed in winter, and it is then that the commercial advantage of the railway, as well as its use for rapid travelling in summer, is likely to be experienced, besides the benefit of opening an extensive new country to agricultural settlement, and to the working of the abundant minerals on the shore of Lake Superior.

We have spoken of the first section, from Lake Nipissing to Thunder Bay, of this railroad which is to link all the British American provinces together. Between Lake Superior and Winnipeg is a rugged piece of country, of rock and bog, forest and torrent, through which government engineers and sturdy labourers are now carrying the most difficult part of the line, as far as Selkirk, on the Red River, which descends below the city of Winnipeg to the lake of that name. The Canadian Pacific Company thence again takes up the construction of the railway, for 1,350 miles across the Prairies and over a Pass of the Rocky Mountains, to Kamloops, on the Thompson River, in British Columbia. It was at first intended to cross the mountain backbone of North America by the Yellowhead Pass, approaching this from Edmonton, on the North Saskatchewan. But the Governor-General's personal inspection of the North-West Territory last year seems to have led to a change of route for the railroad line; and it is now expected to be carried over an easier pass situated above the sources of the Bow River, a tributary of the South Saskatchewan, and to descend on the western side into the valley of the Columbia River. There are no engineering difficulties between Winnipeg and the base of the Rocky Mountains, so that the completion of the prairie railway, through a fertile undulating plain some 1,200 miles in length and 300 miles in width, can easily be effected by the end of next year. It is proposed to remove the official capital of this territory, with its lieutenant-governor and council, from Battleford on the North Saskatchewan, to a nearer place, which is to bear the name of Leopold, on the river known as the Qu' Appelle. The railway has been opened to this place, 372 miles west of Winnipeg city. The sales of lands by the Dominion Government, by the Canadian Pacific Company, and by the Hudson's Bay Company, amounting to several million acres, and the rush of at least forty thousand intending settlers that way during the past summer, show that in popular estimation the opening of

the great North-West is sure to be an abiding success. It will double the extent of Canadian resources, affording room and means of subsistence for a great nation. The future exports of grain, cattle, and other produce, whether sent by the St. Lawrence route or by that of Hudson's Bay, will perhaps some day exceed those of the Mississippi Valley and Western American States. The soil and climate of this region, it is proved by ample and authentic testimony, are as good for ordinary agriculture and stock-raising as in any country on the face of the earth. It is much to be wished that a large emigration of the distressed rural classes, especially from Ireland, should before many years bring it into prosperous cultivation.

The Marquis of Lorne has this year again travelled westward, visiting this time British Columbia, through which finally the Canadian Pacific Railway is to reach, it is hoped in about five years, the remotest ocean shore. Its mainland terminus has been fixed at Fort Moody, on Burrard Inlet, near the town of New Westminster; but there will some day be a bridge over the narrowest part of the strait to Vancouver Island, which possesses coal-mines of inestimable value, and which is destined, probably, to become the Nova Scotia of the Pacific coast. British Columbia is not an easy country for road-making or farming, and the progress of its settlement cannot but be slow in comparison with the open plains of the Saskatchewan and of Manitoba. It will, however, eventually play an important part in the concert of Canadian Provinces; and the maritime commerce of the Pacific, with the direct route this way across the continent for trade and travel between Europe and China, a route one thousand miles shorter than by San Francisco, will confer great advantage upon the seaports of the far west.

Our readers may now form some idea of the present views of National Policy in the mind of Canadians, and of their prospects for the future. The social prosperity that has already been realised in the older parts of that noble British colony, more especially in the model province of Ontario, with its population of two millions, is well worthy of examination, but would extend beyond the limits of this notice. A few statistics of the whole Dominion may here be recorded. The total population, by the census of 1881, was 4,352,000, of whom about three millions were born in Canada. During the past summer 40,000 settlers have passed into Manitoba, leaving many farms in Ontario, perfectly suitable for the occupation of ordinary English and Scottish farmers with their families, with the needful dwelling-houses, out-buildings, and fences, on sale at a very low price.

The Dominion revenue, apart from that raised by the provincial Governments, was this year thirty-two million dollars, which is an increase of three millions over the preceding year. There is a large surplus above the Government expenditure, so that it has been found possible to make reductions of taxation to the amount of one million and a quarter of dollars. The public debt, relatively to this state of the revenue, cannot be regarded as excessively large, amounting to 160 million dollars, part of which is represented by the State property in the Intercolonial Railway and other valuable assets. It should always be remembered, in comparing the past expenditure and present debts of colonial governments with those of the European nations, that the former have mostly been incurred for reproductive public works, such as railways, instead of being lavished on foreign wars. Canada has a greater railway mileage, already in complete operation, in proportion to the numbers of her people, than any other country in the world except the United States; the length of railways hitherto opened for traffic is above 7,000 miles. The Canadian imports from Great Britain, in the year ending last June, amounted in value to forty-three and a-half million dollars, having so far increased from 1879, when they were thirty-one million dollars in amount. The produce of the Canadian fisheries was estimated at nearly sixteen million dollars; the value of the canned salmon from British Columbia alone was one million. The export of cattle and sheep from the Dominion, chiefly to Great Britain, is already considerable. The forests are a most productive source of wealth; and the range of mining industries has recently been enlarged by the discovery and working of rich deposits of phosphate, of graphite, and other valuable substances, to the north of Lake Superior. The shipping of the Dominion numbers 7,377 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,311,218 tons, which is exceeded by only three nations of the world. Steamship companies have established direct lines to Brazil and the La Plata, and between Montreal and Havre for Rouen. A variety of special manufactures, besides those of woollens, worsteds, shoes, and other clothing, iron-foundries and machine-factories, have lately been started in the eastern towns. The banks of Canada, holding assets to the amount of more than two hundred million dollars, carry on a flourishing business; while the savings' bank deposits, nearly twelve million dollars, show that frugal habits still accompany the high wages earned by the working classes. Education, in all its grades and stages, is zealously cared for by the local authorities, and willingly accepted by the people. Ontario has

5,146 common schools, 104 high schools, and several colleges and universities of repute. An interesting event of the past year has been the institution, under the Marquis of Lorne's patronage, of a Royal Society of Art, Literature, and Science in Canada, the president of which is Professor Dawson, F.R.S., the eminent geologist and palæontologist; and this is a circumstance the more opportune, as the British Association for the Advancement of Science has accepted an invitation to visit Montreal at its Congress of 1884. At the opposite extremity of the social scale, it is pleasing to observe that the condition of the remaining North American Indian tribes in Canada, numbering in all 108,000 persons, is reported to be satisfactory. "The majority of them," we are told, "are at least semi-civilized; and the intelligence and refinement, as well as the cleanliness and morality, prevailing in some tribes, would astonish many at home." Six native gentlemen of the Red Indian race are educated and ordained clergymen of the Episcopal Church in the diocese of Huron.

The large island of Newfoundland, which does not form part of the Dominion of Canada, seems, nevertheless, to have begun this year a long-delayed start in the race of colonial progress, which its comparative nearness to Europe should render less difficult. The climate and soil of the interior, now to be opened by railways under construction having a total length of 350 miles, would appear to be well suited to agriculture, but more especially to the keeping of cattle. Its western districts have coal and other mineral resources. In connection with the Newfoundland railways, there is a project of shortening the voyage for mails and passengers to Canada from Great Britain by landing them in that island, and by a steam-ferry conveying them across to Cape Breton, another island, which would then be joined to the Nova Scotian mainland by a bridge over the Gut of Canso.

**Australia.**—Of that vast piece of land, insular by position between the Indian Ocean and the West Pacific, but almost continental by its extent across many geographical degrees of longitude and latitude, which lies far to the south-east of the most distant Asiatic Archipelago, British colonists have taken exclusive possession. All its eastern and southern shores, with more than half the inland middle territory, are now divided between four great Colonial Provinces—New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Queensland. Their wonderful prosperity, and the startling activity of their social life, favoured by the most complete self-government that is compatible with attachment to the British Empire, would command more general attention but for the remoteness of the



scene from Europe. It is a young Southern World of the English race that we now perceive arising in Australasia, including New Zealand, the fair island of Tasmania, now hastening to take its place with the other provinces, and West Australia, which has lagged behind in the race, but will henceforth join their progressive movement. The time has not yet arrived, it seems, for the Australian Provinces to form a Confederation like that of British North America. Their aggregate population—we do not here speak of New Zealand—is considerably below that of the Canadian Dominion, being two millions and a quarter by the census of 1881; and they have not the same political motive to desire federal unity, since there is no foreign State, or Union of States, on their frontiers or in that region of the earth. It may safely be predicted, however, that they will some day unite to form a considerable nation. They are free to do so whenever they please, but the Imperial Government of Great Britain will refrain, and wisely, from any attempt, which would probably be futile, as in the case of South Africa, to hasten this result. We may, however, be allowed to observe that the idea of approaching Australian confederation, the grand prospect of harmonising, to their mutual benefit and to the glory of English Commonwealths, the different capabilities and local ambitions of those vigorous communities, is one which gives a higher degree of interest to our present subject.

The financial budgets of all the Australian Provinces for this year have shown revenues far exceeding their previous estimates, giving a surplus over expenditure, in each instance, available for the reduction of debt or for the remission of taxes. The revenue of New South Wales for the twelvemonth ending June 30th was £7,213,000, being an increase of one million compared with the year before. That of Victoria was £5,750,000, which was £316,000 above the estimate, while £300,000 had been applied to the redemption of treasury bonds. The revenue of South Australia was £2,225,000, an increase of £175,000 from last year; while that of Queensland was £2,100,000, showing an increase of £331,000, and leaving a surplus of £245,000. It appears that these handsome augmentations of public income were due not to forcing the land sales, but to an increased consumption of articles paying customs and excise duties, and to increased traffic on the railways belonging to Government. They resulted, therefore, from the general state of social prosperity throughout Australia, notwithstanding severe losses by drought, and partial failure of the wheat harvest in South Australia last year. It is worthy of remark that the Victoria Government railways are paying a net return of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on a capital of eighteen millions sterling,

and that Province has just authorised the construction of 850 miles more of railway. New South Wales has constructed above one thousand miles of railway, and the traffic pays a yearly interest of 4 per cent. on the outlay for making these lines. Queensland and South Australia, with much smaller present means, but with vaster extent of territory, show even greater enterprise in their disposition to undertake such costly public works. Each of them has laid down about 700 miles of railway, and several thousand miles of overland telegraph. The point to be observed is that the public debts of the leading Australian Provinces, though already exceeding twenty millions in each of those first-named, Victoria and New South Wales, are by no means inordinate. The interest annually paid, for example, by New South Wales upon its debt is £766,000, only the eighth part of its revenue. The Government railways, towards the cost of which a contribution of two millions has been made from surplus revenue, form a property of the State which would suffice, if it were sold, to pay the entire principal of the debt incurred for their construction. The public creditor has a further substantial security in the value of the lands yet remaining unsold, most of which are now leased to pastoral tenants of the crown, and in the price of lands already sold, payable by instalments, of which £10,000,000 is yet to be received. With regard to Victoria, the credit of its Government is good enough to admit of a reduction, within the next four years, of the six per cent. interest on its debentures falling due, to four per cent. It is the railways that make the colony grow, soon bringing settlers to occupy and purchase the lands, and to augment the customs' revenue, and that derived from other taxation, by what they earn and spend. With such results in view, there is no hesitation on the part of a colonial legislature in borrowing millions for the completion of its railway system. The development of this principle in Australia as well as in Canada, in New Zealand, and in South Africa, is the most important general characteristic of British colonial progress during the past seven years. Statistical tables have been compiled which show, in the case of every one of our colonies, that from 1875 to 1880 their railway extensions kept pace, and far more, with their increase of financial liabilities, and their ability to support the burden was thereby enlarged in the same proportion. The process is likely to go on, so long as there remain great tracts of country fit for agricultural occupation, which can be rendered saleable by the making of railways to place fresh settlers within reach of a market. While this condition still exists, there is no fear of a catastrophe in colonial finance; but the public

estate in lands is the ultimate security for the public credit. It might be a questionable policy, indeed, to raise loans for railway construction through territories where the Government had no lands for sale; but that is not the case with the present undertakings.

The extremely bold project of a railway to cross the entire width of Australia from south to north, which was suggested by the success of the overland telegraph, nearly two thousand miles long, constructed by the South Australian Government, has occupied much attention in the past year. There are, indeed, two competing projects; one being that of a company of which the Earl of Denbigh and his brother, Major-General Feilden, were the original promoters, to make a line from New South Wales through Queensland, in the back country, to the Gulf of Carpentaria; while the other scheme is that of a railway from Adelaide, running somewhat to west of north, and following the actual telegraph line, to Port Darwin on the northern coast. The latter is the South Australian line, as the Northern Territory, west of the 138th degree of longitude, is a political dependency of that Province. To the east of longitude 138 deg., around the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria, North Australia belongs to Queensland; and this territory is comparatively well watered by numerous rivers, and endowed with a more fertile soil and a variety of mineral wealth. But South Australian enterprise will take no denial; and it appears likely that there will be a railway from Adelaide to Port Darwin before the north-eastern region of Australia has been furnished with similar means of access from Brisbane and Sydney. It is a question whether this gigantic task shall be undertaken by the Government of South Australia or by a company which Mr. J. G. Pitcher has been attempting to form, with a capital of six millions sterling. A railway already exists from Adelaide, the capital, to Port Augusta, at the head of Spencer Gulf, and thence to the new town of Farina, in latitude 30 deg., four hundred miles from Adelaide. There would be thence about fifteen hundred miles of railway to make to Port Darwin. The company would expect to be remunerated with grants of land along the line, upon the system followed in the Canadian Pacific and other American railway undertakings. Early in this year, Mr. Parsons, one of the South Australian Ministry, with a party of members of the Legislature and a scientific adviser, personally visited the Northern Territory to see what could be done there. A favourable report has been made, and it is intended at once to begin the construction of a short piece of railway at the opposite extremity from Port Darwin, on

the projected line. The Queensland Legislature has, in the mean time, provisionally accepted the terms proposed by the syndicate of the "Transcontinental Railway Company" for its line to the Gulf of Carpentaria. There is, however, something problematical in the hopes of settlements in the Northern Territory. While much of the country is suitable for grazing sheep and cattle, it is doubted whether the growing of wool under a tropical climate will be found consistent with the operations of nature. The cultivation of sugar and other produce of tropical plantations has been very successful on the sea-coast of North Queensland, which enjoys a regular abundant rainfall. It is now being tried near Port Darwin, but can only be practicable by the aid of Chinese, Malay, or Indian coolie labour. The administration of the Northern Territory has been a loss, hitherto, of nearly half a million sterling to the South Australian administration; and the great distance, even when reduced to four days' journey by the railway, will probably forbid the continuance of its political dependence upon the Adelaide Government.

A more immediate and certain social benefit may be expected from the efforts recently made to bring the four capital cities of the leading Australian Provinces into direct railway communication with each other. Sydney is pushing on with lines just opened, running westward to the Darling River and towards South Australia, also northward on the road to Brisbane, and south-west to meet the railways of Victoria; while Adelaide is seeking a connection with Melbourne. The real unity of the whole of Australia, though its western coast settlements are separated by vast desert spaces from the more prosperous and progressive colonies, is a geographical fact the consciousness of which begins to affect the public mind. A token of this feeling was presented by the Intercolonial Conference, held first at Melbourne and by adjournment at Sydney, at the beginning of last year. It was of a semi-official character, being attended by the Prime Ministers of Victoria, New South Wales, and South Australia, and by representatives of the New Zealand and Tasmanian Governments, but its deliberations had no legislative or other binding force. The project of establishing a Federal Council for all these colonies was postponed, with little hope of any positive advance towards its realisation under present circumstances. The proposition that a uniform Customs' Tariff, based on the free-trade commercial policy of New South Wales, should be adopted by them all, was favoured by South Australia and Queensland, but was effectually resisted by the Protectionist Ministry of Victoria. The chief of that Ministry was then Mr. Graham Berry, but it has since passed to the

Premiership of Sir Bryan O'Loughlen, though without a change of the fiscal system. The assembled delegates were, nevertheless, able to agree upon resolutions for the creation of an Australian Court of Final Appeal; for an amalgamation of the Bar and Judiciary, making writs, warrants, and judgments valid throughout these colonies; also for common legislation to restrain the immigration of Chinese, and for combined provisions in the organisation of naval and military defences. The last-mentioned object has since been effectually furthered by the action of the leading Provinces of Australia—namely, Victoria and New South Wales—conforming with the recommendations of the Governor of South Australia, Major-General Sir William Jervois, R.E., who had been instructed by the Imperial Government to examine the subject.

This is a matter of some direct interest also to Great Britain, as the Imperial forces must in any case be relied upon to assist in the use of colonial defensive works. The large piece of land-locked water called Port Phillip, or Hobson's Bay, at the head of which the great city of Melbourne stands on the banks of the Yarra, is entered by a very narrow passage, now guarded by two powerful batteries, of three twelve-ton and four four-ton guns. On Swan Island, commanding the western channel inside, a fortification has been constructed, which will be armed with six guns of the above magnitudes, and with two guns of twenty-five tons weight. At Point Nepean, and on the South Channel, batteries will also be erected, under the direction of Colonel Scratchley, R.E. The naval forces of Victoria consist of an iron-clad turret-ship, the *Cerberus*, with guns in two revolving turrets; the *Nelson*, an old line-of-battle ship, now fitted with a heavy armament; and a small sloop-of-war. The crews are able seamen, many of whom have served in the Royal Navy. The Victorian land forces are confined to the volunteers, mustering about four thousand; but it is proposed to constitute a paid artillery force, and probably a torpedo corps: besides which, the Assembly has just voted money for two torpedo-boats and two more gunboats, and for a military commander and staff. New South Wales has likewise resolved to strengthen the fortifications at the entrance to Port Jackson and Sydney harbour, and has entered into a convention with the Imperial Government, undertaking to provide a naval dockyard and other accommodation for the British squadron on the Australian station, in return for the cession of lands valued at a million and a half sterling, which belonged to the Crown. South Australia will provide a gunboat and a small artillery force.

The most serious obstacle to Australian union, felt at many different points, arises from the obstinate adherence of Victoria to

a monopolist commercial policy, which has evidently retarded immigration and agricultural occupation during the past ten or twelve years, but has inflated the city population of Melbourne to a third part of the inhabitants of that province. The import duties on our textile fabrics and hardware are twenty-five per cent. *ad valorem*. This policy, however, continues to find favour with large numbers of the working classes, who seem to wish to shut out fresh-comers from the "old country," and who vehemently oppose the import of British manufactured goods competing with those of colonial production. Mr. Graham Berry, the leader of the Ultra-Democratic party, has availed himself of this disposition in his attacks upon the new Ministry, which has been guilty of ordering locomotive engines from England, instead of keeping the railways without till some Melbourne mechanics were prepared to make them. The intercolonial primacy of Australia is decidedly returning to the mother colony, New South Wales, which possesses coal and the useful metals as well as gold, and which has a geographical position that will prove tolerably central after the settlement of Queensland to the north, while it cannot fail to command a large maritime traffic.

New South Wales is now in a fair way, by the western railroad opened this year as far as to Hay, on the Murrumbidgee, 480 miles from Sydney, to reclaim all the valuable trade of the Riverina district, bordering on Victoria, which had hitherto been drawn across the Murray to the nearer port of Melbourne. With the exception of a duty of forty shillings the ton upon galvanised and corrugated iron, most articles come into New South Wales on very easy terms. The Premier, Sir H. Parkes, has this year visited England, and has been received with much distinction.

One of the first acts of the Victoria Government formed by Sir Bryan O'Loughlen, when Mr. Graham Berry had left office, was to appoint a Commission of Inquiry to examine the actual effects of the existing fiscal system upon the productive industries of the colony. The evidence taken by this Tariff Commission in different places has been published as the proceedings went on, giving many remarkable proofs of the unfavourable results of a Protectionist tariff. Manufacturers, such as an ironfounder, a tanner, and a coachbuilder, have declared that their business is hampered by the duties imposed on certain tools and machinery which cannot yet be made in Australia. The restrictions that are put upon intercolonial traffic between Victoria and New South Wales, by Victoria levying high duties at the passage of the Murray—the frontier river—are found most directly prejudicial to the former of these two provinces. A tax on the import of live cattle and

sheep has deprived the graziers in Victoria of the profit they used to make by receiving these animals from the Riverina district and fattening them for the Melbourne market. Farmers also complain of the duty of 25 per cent. *ad valorem* on threshing-machines, portable steam engines, and several kinds of agricultural implements—reapers, binders, and strippers—which are made in the colony, and of the duty on wool-packs and corn-sacks. The business of the Melbourne Meat-preserving Company has been diminished one-half, during the last four years, by the exclusion of the supply of stock from New South Wales, while the trade has gone to Sydney. The Melbourne Chambers of Commerce and Manufactures have therefore passed resolutions in favour of inter-colonial free trade, both in manufactures and in natural productions. In that case, inasmuch as the neighbouring Provinces will adhere to a free trade general tariff, which they find allows them to prosper remarkably well, the abandonment of the Protectionist system by Victoria would become only a question of time. With regard, however, to stock—viz., cattle and sheep and swine—all the Australian colonies, and New Zealand with them, have agreed within the last year or two on the prohibition of every kind of live stock from Great Britain. The motive for this prohibition is, however, not to keep up the price in the colonies, but to prevent the introduction of rinderpest, foot-and-mouth, and other destructive diseases.

The International Exhibition at Sydney, which closed on April 20th, 1880, was followed by the Melbourne International Exhibition, which was open from October 1st of that year to April 30th, 1881; and, when the latter closed, some part of its contents went to supply an unofficial exhibition at Adelaide, and one in New Zealand. The report of the Royal Commissioners appointed in England to assist the Sydney and Melbourne Exhibitions has lately been issued. It shows that the cost of the former was about £313,000, and that of the latter £330,000, which was far from being repaid; but the numbers of colonial visitors, in proportion to the population of those provinces, were three or four times as great as of French visitors to the last Paris Exhibition, in proportion to the whole population of France. There were above 800 British exhibitors in Australia, while the foreign exhibitors were 2,160 at Sydney and 4,416 at Melbourne, showing the importance that is now attributed to the Australian market for European and American products. The Sydney Exhibition was opened by Lord Augustus Loftus, Governor of New South Wales; and Lord Normanby, Governor of Victoria, opened the Exhibition at Melbourne. The Exhibition Building at

Sydney, with the valuable collections placed in it by the Colonial Government, was unfortunately destroyed by fire on September 22nd of this year.

Western Australia has made but slow progress hitherto in population or in the extent of cultivated land ; but the Kimberley and other fresh tracts of pastoral territory have been occupied this year. The colonial finances are in a satisfactory state ; and it is proposed to make railways from Perth, the capital, to Albany, King George's Sound, and to the northern districts. Tasmania is also steadily advancing in economic and social progress, as its mineral riches are brought to light by a more active spirit of enterprise. The Australian colonies, on the whole, seem to be in a most promising condition, well sustained by their staple productive resources of wool and gold, to which they are still adding a variety of other industries with fair prospects of success. Political co-operation, after all, is most to be desired for their common welfare ; but this can scarcely be realised until they are agreed upon the principles of their commercial policy ; and Victoria, as we have seen, persists in a way of her own. It would also be to their common advantage, as has been proved in the union of the Canadian Provinces, and likewise in that of New Zealand, the one Federal, the other now forming a Colonial State under a Central Government, that the whole group of Australian colonies should adopt some uniform rule for the sale of public lands, and for the importation of labour. Immigrants brought into one colony at the public cost have been known to pass in large numbers over to another colony ; and there is, at this moment, in the terms offered respectively by Victoria and by New South Wales to purchasers of land, a kind of mutual underbidding, which seems ill calculated to secure the best class of permanent occupying settlers. Girls as well as boys of sixteen are allowed to become selectors in Victoria, holding for six years, and then obtaining the freehold of 640 acres. The extent of public lands suitable for agriculture in Victoria is comparatively so limited, that it is likely to be all taken up within less than thirty years, when the Colonial Government will have no more to sell.

**New Zealand.**—The unique position of this colony, occupying an insular territory as large as the British Islands a thousand miles from Australia, demands separate notice of its affairs during the past year. It ranks next to Victoria and New South Wales in population, and in the amount of its products and trade, and of its Government revenue. With half a million inhabitants, and a revenue of £3,488,000, it bears a public debt the net amount of



which is £27,680,000, and it is now intended to borrow three or four millions more, though not all at once, chiefly for the purpose of railway construction. In justification of this bold proposal, it is observed that the railways already constructed pay four per cent. yearly profit on their cost, which has been eleven millions sterling. This question, in New Zealand, as well as in Australia, and in Canada, is the ruling interest of present colonial policy. Attention has been also drawn to the settlement of the land disputes with the Maori tribes on the western side of the North Island, and the opening of new territory there for colonial occupation. The Governor, Sir Arthur Gordon, has not found himself in perfect agreement with the Ministry that enjoys the confidence of the Legislative Assembly at Wellington. Nevertheless, political life has been comparatively tranquil in 1882; while the reconstruction of the Ministry in April, occasioned by the ill-health of Mr. Hall, the late Premier, has raised one of his former colleagues, Mr. Whitaker, previously Attorney-General, to the head of the Government.

A remnant of the Maori tribes, in the western part of the North Island, has not yet accepted the laws and customs of European civilisation. Under the influence of an old chief, named Te Whiti, formerly a pupil of the Lutheran missionaries, but who had rather abused his acquaintance with the Hebrew Scriptures to set up as an inspired prophet and leader of the people, above two thousand of them held monthly assemblies at Parihaka, which seemed likely to become the source of political trouble. They had also begun to squat upon the extensive tract of land in that neighbourhood, part of the Province of Taranaki, which was confiscated by Government after the last Maori war, but most of which has never yet been settled or surveyed. Two or three chiefs who had been outlawed for the murder of white persons some time ago, or for other outrages, came to Parihaka, and it was feared they would seduce the people to acts of rapine and violence, though Te Whiti himself seems to have refrained from hostile or treasonable conduct. It was resolved, in October last year, to break up the Parihaka community, and to remove the Maori squatters, who belonged to different tribes having no local title to the land in that district. Mr. Bryce, the Minister for Native Affairs, with the aid of a strong force of Colonial Volunteer Rifle Corps from all the Provinces of New Zealand, and with the Armed Constabulary, took possession of the Pah or Maori village, without meeting the slightest resistance. He arrested Te Whiti, Tohu, and several other noted chiefs, and compelled the Maories to leave that part of the country. They

were provided with land in other districts. The Governor, Sir Arthur Gordon, while admitting the necessity of forcible action to prevent a disastrous outbreak, and approving of the detention of the chiefs for a limited period by virtue of a special law which is passed for that purpose, considered that there were some Maori claims of land ownership which had been too peremptorily set aside. He felt that the natives, who had *bonâ fide* asserted these claims by removing the fences, or by ploughing the land for themselves, ought not to be very harshly dealt with. There was, however, no disposition to treat them harshly or unfairly. An official correspondence between the Governor, the Colonial Prime Minister, and the Secretary of State for the Colonies, had not mitigated the feeling of antagonism, when, upon Mr. Hall's resignation last April, the Governor sent for Sir George Grey, the Opposition leader, to see if he could form a new Ministry. Sir George Grey, after being twice Governor of New Zealand, before the colony had a parliamentary constitution, has continued to reside there, taking an active part in colonial politics, and has been Prime Minister with indifferent success. But this distinguished gentleman now felt that he was not in a position to assume the management of affairs. The Ministry was, therefore, reconstituted under Mr. Whitaker, as Colonial Secretary, Major Atkinson being Colonial Treasurer, Mr. Walter Johnston Minister of Public Works, and Mr. Bryce Minister of Native Affairs. Their measures and statements, laid before the General Assembly at Wellington in its last session, evince a high degree of originality and vigorous conception; but the Opposition party, as might be expected, profess much alarm at the proposal to authorise loans for three millions and another special million sterling. It is observed that of the 1,333 miles of railway now open for traffic in New Zealand, 875 miles are in the South Island, in the Provinces of Canterbury and Otago, while the North Island has but 458 miles yet opened. To delay finishing the lines which are partly constructed is bad economy, seeing that they must be completed, or carried on to the districts likely to yield most traffic, before they can be remunerative for the cost already incurred. In the opinion of many colonists, New Zealand might well go on, year after year, laying out an annual borrowed million upon railway construction, to the extent of six or eight millions beyond what has been hitherto invested in such works, and the railway earnings would still pay four per cent. upon this outlay. The average working expenses are moderate, not exceeding  $47\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of the gross receipts. It appears, however, on the other hand, that the Government railway system in New

Zealand, more especially in the South Island, has rather failed to produce the same collateral benefits which are derived from similar works in some other new countries, because it has not been associated with the sale of public lands along the lines of railway. In Canterbury and Otago, generally speaking, the land of the plains traversed by these lines was long since monopolised by private owners of enormous estates, mostly the early squatters or run-holders, who had been allowed by pre-emption to convert their lessee-ship into absolute proprietorship of tens of thousands of acres. This is not so much the case in the North Island, where it is to be hoped that the example of Canada and the United States will be followed by disposing of the land in portions suitable for the actual occupation of farmers with small capital, in that favourable climate and soil.

A novel feature this year introduced into the land system, and which ought to be made known to intending agricultural emigrants from Great Britain, is the Government proposal to grant leases of public land, with fixity of tenure, at very moderate rent, the tenant having power to renew his holding from term to term, so that he will enjoy as much security as with a freehold. These tenancies will in no case be larger than 640 acres, and must not be held along with other lands. The idea has, perhaps, been taken from the principle of the recent Irish Land Act, and it might in other countries be worth considering, as an alternative to the scheme of creating a numerous small proprietary class.

A more startling legislative novelty, which has apparently not so much prospect of soon becoming law, was propounded by the Colonial Treasurer in July; nothing less than a system of compulsory Government assurance, with subscriptions to be exacted from every young man and young woman in the community, to provide relief in sickness and old age, or for widows and children after the husband's death. It is the first time, we believe, that any Government has shown a disposition to undertake this species of remedy for pauperism and destitution, which has been advocated in England by the Rev. W. T. Blackley and other philanthropic social reformers. Major Atkinson's calculation is that an enforced payment of 2s. 3d. weekly from the age of sixteen to the age of twenty-three, or 3s. 3d. weekly from eighteen to twenty-three years of age, producing respectively £41 1s. 4d. and £41 17s. 1d. as contributions to the national insurance fund, would suffice to provide sick pay, superannuation allowance at the age of sixty-five, and an allowance for widow and children. The allowance during sickness would be 15s. a week for a single person, 22s. 6d. for a married man, and 7s. 6d. for a married woman;

the old age pension would be 10s. a week. The widow's allowance, with one child, would be 15s. a week; but in order farther to provide for orphans, it would be necessary that the parent, at his option, should have continued his payment, at the rate of 2s. weekly, five years after he attained the age of twenty-three. His widow and children, at his death, might then receive up to 30s. a week till the children are fifteen years of age. It should be observed that a system of voluntary Government life assurance has been successfully in operation during twelve years past. It does an amount of business rather exceeding that of all the other life assurance offices in New Zealand put together, and yields a profit to the Government. The Post Office and Government Savings Bank lend their assistance to the payment of small life assurance premiums by the labouring classes. In some other departments, notably by the institution of a public official trustee, who will take charge of a marriage settlement, a trust for infants, the administration of a bequest, or other private trust, New Zealand legislation has already set an example to older countries; and it is not impossible that this remote colony may be the first to solve an important social problem.

The population of New Zealand has nearly doubled within the past ten years, and is now estimated at half a million, of whom 323,000 belong to the class of workers for wages, including female household servants; 96,000 are of the employing or middle class, but are not possessors of property to the value of £500; and 68,500, as payers of property-tax, are reckoned owners to that amount and more. The incidence of taxation, per head, is at the rate of less than £1 per annum for the wage-earning class, £2 13s. for the intermediate class, and for the upper class it has been £6 8s. 6d., but the property-tax is now to be reduced, and their taxation will be £4 10s. per head, man, woman, and child. The aggregate of borough and county valuations for land-tax and property-tax is 236 millions sterling. In 1870 the total value of real and personal estate was fifty millions. A satisfactory indication of the habits of the wage-earning class is observed in the number of savings bank depositors, which is above 61,000, with a million and a half standing to their credit, the number having increased five-fold during the period of ten years. On the other hand, an increasing consumption of luxuries is shown by the customs' receipts, which were £125,000 over the estimate for last year. There are signs of progress, development, and prosperity in every department of social statistics and official administration.

The New Zealand International Exhibition, which was opened at Christchurch, the capital of Canterbury, on the 10th of April,

resembled the exhibition at Adelaide, South Australia, in being promoted and managed by two enterprising gentlemen, Mr. Jules Joubert and Mr. Ernest Nowell Twopeny, partly using the materials of the Sydney and Melbourne Great Exhibitions. It had not, therefore, an official character; but Sir Arthur Gordon, the Governor, opened the Exhibition with due state and ceremony, and it was a considerable local success. The show of specimens, however, of colonial products and industries was limited to the Province of Canterbury; and the Exhibition, on the whole, was rather a show of British, French, German, and other European manufactures and works of art.

The commercial statistics of New Zealand for this year show a great increase both of imports and of exports. Wool and gold, as in the case of the Australian colonies, are the main staples of export; but profitable results have attended the shipments of agricultural produce, mainly of wheat and oats, from the South Island. The latest complete returns that have reached us are for the three months ending with March, 1882. The total value of exports in that quarter was £2,495,286; of which the wool stands for £1,683,929, gold for £283,000, and wheat for £209,000; but the amount of preserved or frozen meat is not yet considerable. There has recently been a large exportation of rabbit-skins from New Zealand, as well as from Victoria, these colonies being unhappily infested with those mischievous little beasts in such a degree that the Government has to offer rewards for their destruction, and phosphoric poison is distributed for that purpose. The establishment of a line of mail steamships direct between New Zealand and England is again projected, for which a subsidy of £20,000 a year has been voted by the Assembly at Wellington, but the route is not yet fixed.

**South Africa.**—The Cape Colony (postponing for a moment the consideration of the state of Natal) may be said to have made a flourishing appearance in the past twelvemonth. It has shown great elasticity of resources, and a high degree of private and public enterprise, in promptly recovering from the shock of its military defeat in the Basuto war, and from the loss of at least two millions sterling, the cost of that abortive undertaking. Mr. Gordon Sprigg, the late Prime Minister, whose main support was in the eastern districts and the British party, was succeeded by Mr. J. C. Molteno, since knighted, with a Ministry in which the substantial Dutch section of colonists, and the older western districts, were fully represented, as well as the mercantile and professional classes of Capetown. Sir John Molteno, after a long

and honourable public life, concurrent with the history of parliamentary government in this colony, has retired from office, and the Premier is now Mr. T. C. Scanlen, a lawyer and politician of ability for the post, with colleagues who seem equal to their departmental work, and with a policy of peace and prudence. Their financial situation, like that of our other great colonies this year, is very favourable; the revenue has amounted to nearly £3,500,000, exceeding the estimate by half a million, and giving a surplus over the year's expenditure which has enabled the treasury to repay what it borrowed last year from the Standard Bank for war expenses, and to settle a pecuniary claim of the Imperial Government on account of the Kaffir war of 1878. It is now perfectly well understood throughout South Africa that the Imperial Government henceforth expects the Cape Colony to provide for its own defence against native foes, and to bear all the risk and charge of its dealings with any of the African tribes or nations living on its borders. This condition of affairs has obliged the colonists, since the utter failure of their attempted conquest of Basuto Land, in which the western districts had no immediate interest, to come to terms with the Basuto chiefs, who professed their loyalty to the Queen. The arbitration of those terms was entrusted to the Governor, Sir Hercules Robinson, whose decision, though not to be enforced by the authority of the Crown, had sufficient moral weight to gain acceptance on both sides. The Basutos consented to pay a large fine in cattle, and to become amenable to a sort of Protectorate, with a small hut-tax levied upon them, but with security for their lands and for their domestic liberties. The Colonial Government, on the other hand, withdrew and repealed its Disarmament Act and Proclamation, which had been the occasion of the war. There has, of course, been a great deal of acrimonious discussion between the rival parties in the Capetown House of Assembly, where the Government has been reviled for its concessions to the late enemy. The Legislative Council, too, like our own Upper House, was on the Opposition side, but the Government, being sustained by the majority of the representatives of the people, carried its policy through, and it seems likely to work pretty well. There is still a difficulty with one of the malcontent Basuto chiefs, named Masupha, whose ambitious and turbulent disposition might give fresh trouble, but that the other leaders and their tribesmen are peaceably inclined. It is worthy of notice that the colonial war party, so eager and zealous for the invasion of the Basuto country two years ago, suddenly cooled down as soon as the Imperial Government announced that it

would not permit any confiscation of lands after the subjugation of that people. So long as the political preponderance remains with the older western part of the Cape Colony, while the Crown is represented by a Governor with so much sound judgment and sense of equity as Sir Hercules Robinson, there will not be another Kaffir war.

Railway construction in this colony has made considerable progress, and the working of the lines already opened returns a yearly profit of three and a-half per cent., but there are not any accompanying great land sales on Government account, as in other newly settled countries of the world. Indeed, the least encouraging aspect of the position of the Cape, and of South African colonisation in general, seems to be that of agricultural progress. The great staples of export commerce are diamonds and ostrich feathers; to which may be added wool, hides, and copper, and a little gold and ivory from the Transvaal. Hitherto, there has been an uninterrupted production of wealth, and it has been used in an enterprising spirit. The trade of Capetown and of Port Elizabeth has rapidly increased, bringing money into brisk circulation. The port of Capetown is admirably situated for traffic with Europe, and the completion of the Table Bay Harbour improvements will render it both safe and commodious, towards which a farther step has been made this year. This was the opening by the Governor, in April last, of the new graving dock, in which steamships 500 feet long, of 4,000 tons burden, and drawing 23 feet of water can be overhauled and repaired. It has cost £130,000. The docks and basins, constructed at a cost of £443,000, which were opened by the Duke of Edinburgh twelve years ago, have greatly enhanced the maritime prosperity of the Cape Colony, which does not seem to have lost anything by the new route of navigation to India through the Suez Canal. So far from it, we have now to record that the aggregate of tonnage yearly entering Table Bay has become four and a half times greater than it was in 1869, when the Suez Canal was opened. The harbour breakwater, commenced in 1860, is now to be lengthened by an addition of 1,800 feet, with arms at each side, enclosing a large space of deep water to form an outer harbour. A new line of submarine telegraph cable is proposed, to communicate with England, by way of the isle of St. Vincent and Madeira, but the question of subsidies has not yet been arranged.

Natal, on the eastern coast of South Africa, geographically detached and politically separate from the Cape, has failed to become strong enough for constitutional self-government, a boon which was this year offered by the Crown, but upon such conditions

as the colonists feared to accept. They would be required, according to the communication from Lord Kimberley, to undertake the whole charge of maintaining whatever defensive forces they might need either against a possible insurrection of the Zulus within their boundary, who number about 300,000, or an attack from natives beyond the frontier. The whole European population of Natal is less than 30,000, and it is no discredit to their courage that the community has shrunk from assuming a political dignity which must be purchased at this serious cost. It was not, however, by the spontaneous action of the Imperial Government, but in answer to the request of the colonists, that the alternative was put before them; and there is no reason to imagine that the Imperial Government is averse to continue its guarantee of military protection so long as native affairs remain under the control of Sir Henry Bulwer. That excellent Governor, who was formerly Lieutenant-Governor of Natal, and whose conduct in the affairs of the Zulu Kingdom, until he was overruled by Sir Bartle Frere, preserved the peace of South Africa, returned to Natal in the early part of this year. Little is to be noted of internal progress in the colony. Some agitation, chiefly in the town of Durban, has been excited on account of the intended restoration of Cetewayo to the headship of the Zulu nation. But Sir Henry Bulwer's despatches of former years, to the outbreak of the Zulu war, bear distinct witness that Cetewayo, with all his faults, never committed or intended an act of hostility towards the English colonists of Natal.

The prospects of Zululand now, however, lie beyond the scope of a chapter on the British Colonial possessions, and so does the condition of the Transvaal State, with the restored self-government of the sturdy Boers, who have not yet elected their President, but will probably choose Mr. Paul Kruger.

The foregoing pages have been occupied with the affairs of those principal colonial branches of the British nation which are planted in Canada, in Australia, in New Zealand, and in South Africa. These have grown into large communities of people of our own race, the smallest, the Cape Colony, having a European population of a quarter of a million; while the greatest—namely, Canada—numbers above four millions, including those of French descent. They alike possess and exercise the most complete powers of self-government compatible with allegiance to the British Crown; and their contemporary domestic history is that of nations living their own life in their own land, free from all outward interference. The situation of the other British colonies, as well of those which are mere naval and military stations, and those



which are maintained either as mercantile depôts and places of commercial exchange, or as plantations of tropical produce cultivated by negro or native labour, is essentially different. These colonies, as they cannot retain a very large community of abiding British residents to form a considerable people, while they have great numbers of the labouring class who are not of European race, must be kept under the direct administration of the Crown. The West Indies, Jamaica, Trinidad, and British Guiana being the most important, the large island of Ceylon, and that of Mauritius, in the Indian Ocean, the great commercial ports of Singapore and Hong Kong, and others in the Eastern Archipelago, on the west coast of Africa, and elsewhere over the surface of the globe, all belong, more or less, to this category of British colonial possessions or dependencies not assuming political dignity and responsibility in the management of their own affairs, but subject to the tutelage of the Home Government. The elective or partially-nominated representative councils do not make or control the executive, but are merely consulting assemblies to aid the Governor. There is little that demands any comment or mention here in the incidents that have been reported from those widely-scattered fragments of the Imperial dominion throughout the year 1882. The past twelvemonth has not been eventful, and the chief concern has been that of the season for the cultivation of sugar and other valuable crops raised in tropical climes. The most encouraging signs are those of beginning new kinds of production for export, as of tea and chinchona in Ceylon, and of fruit in Jamaica, instead of relying exclusively upon one staple of commerce.

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## CHAPTER II.

### INDIA.

IN reviewing the course of events of the past twelve months, so far as they relate to our Indian Empire, it is impossible to help being struck with the picture of peace, development, and general prosperity presented to us. At the advent to power of the Gladstone Ministry in 1880, the long continuance of the Afghan campaign, and of the local disturbances and risings against the presence of our troops in that country, had produced a very perceptible desire for a period of rest to enable India to devote herself to those schemes of good government and internal development which the normal condition of her finances, aggravated by a heavy military expenditure, so urgently needed. The withdrawal of our troops

from Afghan soil, in the spring of last year, afforded at last the wished-for leisure, and we may well be satisfied, on looking back, to see that the course of events following on our retirement from that disturbing scene has been one of steady progress, not unmingled with reforms of high importance.

It was on the 30th of September, 1881, that the present Amir of Afghanistan made his triumphal entry into Candahar after the decisive battle fought near the ruins of old Candahar, where Ayob Khan was overthrown, and his pretensions to Afghan sovereignty were finally crushed. The subsequent occupation of Herat, the great western metropolis and trade-mart of Afghanistan, by Sirdar Abdul Kudus Khan, gave the seal to the consolidation of the country under its present ruler, whose subsequent course of government has been happily unmarked by events of outside importance. Ayob Khan has been interned in Persia, and has sunk into obscurity; and the only quarter in which any disquieting signs are at all apparent is that of Maimanah. This petty State, situated at a point where the northern slopes of the Paropamisus abut on the margin of the desert, has often, in past times, endeavoured, with more or less success, to throw off the yoke of Cabul authority. Its present Wali, encouraged possibly by the near approach of the Russians, is reported to have recently secured some hundreds of rifles from the Turcomans, with the view of strengthening his independence. The formal annexation by Russia of the Akhal Tekke country (the Nisæan plain of classic writers), and the conclusion of a treaty with Persia during the past year, have undoubtedly done much to increase Russia's prestige in the Trans-Caspian country and Central Asia; and the construction of the railway from Krasnovodsk, on the Caspian, to Bami, coupled with the preliminary survey by M. Lessar, necessary for its prolongation as far as Sarakhs and Ghorian, show that the Russians are keenly alive to those means by which their tenure of their new possessions may be most readily strengthened. In the direction of Merv, too, Russia has not been idle, but has organised a contingent some five thousand strong, recruited from her late foes, the Turcomans—the Scythians of old; and has encouraged the free passage of caravans to and from Merv and Meshed. Further to the east, the serious illness of the Khan of Bokhara, and the field of conjectural policy opened thereby, have supplied our Ambassador in St. Petersburg, and M. Giers, the Russian Minister, with matter for important debate. It will, therefore, be seen that all along the line there are signs of an eventual, though it may not be an immediate, advance, towards our Indian Empire,

of a very momentous character. At present, however, these threatening clouds are still afar, and our Government have declared so emphatically their resolution to tolerate no violation of Afghan independence that we may rest secure with watchfully observing the movements of our powerful neighbour. A very good effect appears to have been produced on the Afghan durbar by the despatch of Lieutenant-Colonel Mahomed Afzul Khan as British Agent in Afghanistan. This officer, supplied with a fitting assortment of presents, and a still more agreeable item in the shape of a money subsidy for the Amir, reached Cabul in June last, and has been most warmly received by Abdurrahman, who has gladly availed himself of the opportunity afforded to renew his expressions of gratitude and loyalty to the British crown.

Secure thus from anxiety in respect of the recently so troublous region beyond our North Western Frontier, Lord Ripon has had opportunity to devote himself to a great reform, which, when fully elaborated, will probably stand in the forefront as a conspicuous monument of his Viceroyalty. Almost coincidently with the retirement of our troops from Southern Afghanistan, there appeared in the official *Gazette* a minute showing that the Government had taken an important step in the direction of the so-called decentralization of the revenues. Lord Mayo, among various measures of signal utility which marked his too brief tenure of office, had set the example in this direction by assigning certain heads of expenditure to the unfettered control of the local Governments, who were thus vested with a direct personal interest in the economy of these assignments. This principle has received important amplification at the hands of Lord Ripon, who, following out the precedent set in 1879 in the case of British Burma (a province whose idiosyncrasies and exceptional prosperity had called for exceptional treatment), has now conceded to the provincial administrations further heads of revenue, in addition to a fixed proportion of the land revenue, the most important of all. The proportion of land revenue thus permanently assigned varies in the different provinces from 22 per cent. in the case of the North West Provinces to 50 per cent. in the case of Bombay, but on an average it may be said roughly that rather more than one-third of the land revenue has been permanently surrendered by the Imperial Exchequer. On the other hand, the responsibilities of the Local Governments have been increased, insomuch that they are to look for no special aid, except in the case of severe famine, and then only within certain limits. This condition, however, may fairly be said to be balanced by the

assurance that the Imperial Government will make no demand on them except in the event of a disaster so abnormal as to exhaust the Imperial reserves, and threaten the suspension of the entire machinery of public improvement.

The principle of these measures will be carried still further by the provincial administrations having been instructed to make a careful survey of their accounts, with the object of seeing what heads of receipt and charge can expediently be transferred to local committees, composed of non-official and elected members, with the view thereby of devising forms of taxation most in accordance with popular sentiment, and, generally speaking, of developing a spirit of local self-government throughout the Empire.

On the whole, these views appear to have been fairly accepted by the Local Governments, several of which have drawn up detailed schemes for giving effect to them. In May last, the Governor-General issued a fresh resolution, explaining rather more fully the general mode in which he desired that the principle of local self-government should be carried out outside the great Presidency towns. The smallest administrative unit, the subdivision, the *taluka* or the *tahsil*, divisions—for which we have no corresponding English equivalent, but which may be roughly compared in size to one of the smaller English counties—is to form the maximum area of jurisdiction of a local board, though in some cases there may also be a distinct council, composed of delegates from the boards. Whether urban or rural, these boards are always to have a large preponderance of non-official members; and with the idea of clothing the appointment with some significance, the natives are to bear the courtesy titles of Rai or Khan Bahadur during their term of office. Government control over these boards is to be exercised from *without* rather than *within*—that is to say, the official authorities are to revise or check the action of the boards rather than dictate it. We have dwelt somewhat at length on this scheme of Lord Ripon's, but its important bearing on the future of British India can hardly be over-estimated in fostering among the natives that spirit of self-reliance and that capacity for self-government without which no nation can aspire to real greatness.

In November last, the Viceroy undertook a tour in Northern India, Rajpootana and Behar; and was enthusiastically received at Agra, Jeypore, Ajmere, and various other localities, where he availed himself of the opportunity to explain fully the Government views on various great public questions. His return to Calcutta was signalized by the repeal of the Vernacular Press

Act, a measure passed during Lord Lytton's tenure of office, and levelled at the suppression of a spirit of seditious or quasi-seditious writing which had undoubtedly characterized some of the more violent of the native vernacular journals. The policy of Lord Lytton's Act has been freely discussed both in the Indian and home journals, so that a repetition of the principal arguments will scarcely be needed by our readers. The general view appears to be that the measure was one with which it would be better to dispense, if possible; and we have now the authoritative opinion of Mr. Gibbs, the Member of Council who introduced the Act for its repeal, that the existing Indian Penal Code will be quite sufficient to enable Government to deal with seditious publications without resort to an Act which all supporters of a free press are undoubtedly glad to see abolished.

The close of the year 1881 was marked by a highly agreeable event—the investiture of the young Gaekwar, or ruler of Baroda with the Government of that State. Comprising about 4,400 square miles, and numbering a population of about two million souls, Baroda occupies an important position in the larger province of Guzerat, in Western India. Its familiar sound to British ears is chiefly due to the events of 1875, which culminated in the deposition of its former ruler, Mulhar Rao, for gross misgovernment and notorious misconduct. The Government determined to leave the choice of a successor to the Maharani Jamna Bai, widow of Khandi Rao, a prince whose unswerving loyalty during the mutiny was well remembered. Her selection fell upon her son, who appears to have occupied up to that time a comparatively obscure position in Khandeish. Thanks, however, to the perfect judgment shown in the measures for good government taken during the minority of the youth, the new *régime* promises wonderfully well. Sir Madhava Rao, the Prime Minister, and Mr. Melvill, the agent to the Governor-General, acting in complete accord, have succeeded in evoking order out of the miserable chaos left by the former ruler; and have not only discharged the burden of debt, but also provided funds for education, public works, municipal improvements, and numerous other administrative wants. The new Gaekwar, Syaji Rao, has been educated under an English tutor, Mr. F. A. H. Elliot, of the Bombay Civil Service, who, in the place of the pernicious *zenana* influence, which is the ruin of so many eastern princes, has implanted in his pupil a thorough and liberal English education, coupled with a healthy liking for field sports and manly exercises, which bid fair to make this young Mahratta Prince a sensible and popular ruler. The investiture—a ceremony followed by scenes of festivity and barbarous gaiety,

of which nautch-dances, rhinoceros, elephant, and buffalo fights formed part—was performed by Sir James Fergusson, Governor of Bombay, and the testimony openly borne on that occasion to the physical, intellectual, and moral qualities of the new Maharajah forms the happiest augury for the future welfare of his State.

Contemporaneous with the foregoing events, the visit of the Viceroy and Lady Ripon to British Burmah afforded opportunity for a better knowledge of a province which stands as one of the happiest results of British government in the East. To trace the wonderful development of British Burmah within the last ten years would occupy much space, but we may mention, shortly, that its population has increased nearly forty per cent., its seaborne trade from seven and three-quarters to eighteen millions sterling, while education shows a marvellous spread in similar proportion. The chief exports which make Burmah what it is are the rice, timber (*i.e.*, teak, which is so carefully preserved as to promise a magnificent revenue in course of years), and cutch, a resinous gum used for dyeing and other purposes in Europe and America.

Various local grievances were brought under the notice of the Viceroy during his brief stay in British Burmah, the most important being—firstly, the injury done to our up-country trade by the system of selling monopolies adopted by King Theebaw, the Sovereign of Upper or Independent Burmah; and, secondly, the establishment of a separate High Court of Judicature for the province. The creation of the monopolies was contrary to the provisions of our treaty of 1867 with Burmah, and Lord Ripon determined, therefore, that a strong remonstrance should be forwarded to the Court of Ava. This step has, to a certain extent, had a good result in leading the Mandalay authorities to despatch a duly-accredited embassy to the Governor-General of India. The chief of the party is described as intelligent and courteous, and as having lived several years in France and England. In their curious costume—red velvet petticoat and jacket, thickly embroidered with gold, with a marvellous head-dress, compared to two inverted, broad-rimmed, copper basins surrounded by pendant ornaments—these Ambassadors formed one of the most conspicuous objects at the *levée* held by Lord Ripon on the occasion of Her Majesty's birthday. Unfortunately, the negotiations, which appear to have contemplated the drawing up of a fresh treaty between the two countries, have brought to light points of serious divergence. Our Government are not unwilling to enter again on closer terms with Burmah, but there are certain concessions, such as a fortified residency and a military guard for

our representative at Mandalay, the withdrawal of the court regulations as to the removal of his shoes before entering the Palace, on all of which we are bound in self-interest or dignity to insist, and which the Ambassadors have protested their inability to make. The recent intelligence that the Embassy has been recalled by the King unhappily shuts out the last chance of getting our grievances settled amicably, and shows that any future remonstrances addressed to this savage monarch are not likely to be respected unless backed by force.

In treating of Indian events, it is impossible to avoid considerable reference to agriculture. It is not generally realized how completely India is an agricultural country, and to what extent her people are dependent on the soil for support. No less than seventy-five per cent. of the total population derive their income, either directly or indirectly, from the soil; while of the exports, fully ninety per cent. consists of articles of raw produce. Notwithstanding this, but few efforts have been made to achieve any real agricultural reform, though its vital bearing on Indian finance, and on the very existence of the people, cannot but be readily conceded. Lord Mayo, amid other measures of signal utility, organised a Special Department for the purpose of instituting agricultural improvements, and, generally speaking, developing the rural wealth of India. Financial considerations, however, stood in the way of carrying out his scheme in its entirety, and the Department, as eventually constructed, was but imperfectly fitted to cope with its professed object. Still, under the care of an accomplished and most indefatigable member of the Bengal Civil Service, Mr. A. O. Hume, C.B., much was done, tentatively, and more might have been achieved had not Lord Lytton decided on the abolition of the Agricultural Department. Such a step, however, could not be regarded as a satisfactory or final mode of disposing of this great question. The Famine Commissioners had drawn attention to the vital necessity of instituting some agency for the systematic collection of accurate statistics regarding the food-producing capacity of the Empire, and their suggestions were specially commended by Lord Hartington to the attention of the Government of India, and through them to the subordinate administrations. A favourable response was received from many quarters, and several of the Local Governments proceeded to take measures for organising provincial agencies for the discharge of the required duties. In December last, the Government formulated their matured views in the shape of a lengthy resolution, in which they summarized the chief *desiderata* into the following:—First, inquiry into and

precise knowledge of the actual condition of the country, its population and resources; secondly, improvement of food-supplying capacities of the country and general resources of the people; and, thirdly, better and prompt organisation of famine relief. Beyond this the progress of agricultural reform does not appear to have advanced to any great extent. The Government have undoubtedly laid down the general lines on which the inquiry should be conducted, and the local administrations have taken somewhat divergent steps towards establishing departments under their immediate control; but it may be doubted whether the general scheme can attain complete success without a central department under an experienced chief, who shall be charged with the duty of collecting data from other nations, promoting the free interchange of opinions and information among all agricultural officers; and, by his supervision and advice, secure real and systematic progress. Possibly, the nucleus for such a central agency may be found in a special revenue and agricultural secretariat which has been created at head-quarters, but in any case the future working of this much-needed reform will be watched with interest.

In February, another great subject—that of education—came to the front. In tracing the history of this important question in India, we naturally go back for a commencement to the year 1854, when the Court of Directors, in a masterly despatch, drafted by the present Lord Halifax (then Sir Charles Wood), laid down clearly the principles on which the educational policy of the Government of India should be founded. In 1871, the decentralization policy of Lord Mayo, referred to above, relegated educational matters to the care of the Local Governments, and since then the Government has been dependent on annual departmental reports for its knowledge of the manner in which the educational requirements of the country are being fulfilled. It was in Lord Mayo's time that Mr. Arthur P. Howell, Under Secretary for the Home Department, drew attention to the comparatively insignificant provision made for the elementary education of the masses in India, and in April last year this want was brought under the personal notice of the Secretary of State by an influential deputation of the General Council on Education in India, headed by Lord Halifax himself. This movement has resulted in the appointment of a Commission, composed of members of the Civil Service of known experience in regard to education, missionaries, native gentlemen, and others with special knowledge of the subject, the whole being under the presidency of Mr. W. W. Hunter, C.I.E., LL.D. Its general object is to inquire into the manner in which the principles of the despatch of 1854 are being



given effect to, and to suggest further measures towards that end. But as this field of inquiry, if unrestricted, would have been too wide, certain points, such as the Universities, European and Eurasian education, technical education (whether medical, legal, or engineering), and education in British Burma, have been expressly excluded from its scope, these being all of them matters which are either working well or have been considered very recently. The main point to which the Commission is to direct its attention is how an essentially useful and practical education is to be conveyed to the great masses who cannot procure it for themselves. Up to the present time, more has been done for upper and middle than for primary education, and the number of children, for whose wants in this respect nothing whatever is done, is estimated at more than twenty-five millions. To provide for all these is clearly out of the power of the Government, therefore the grant in aid system is to be extended, and native gentlemen are to be encouraged to more strenuous efforts in founding and undertaking the management of schools. The training of teachers, educational inspection, and female education (an important and difficult question in India) are also to receive particular attention.

The Budget was introduced by the Hon. Major Baring, C.S.I., on the 15th March; and in nearly every respect presented a better aspect than anticipated. The accounts for the financial year 1880-1 showed a deficit of only £4,044,000, instead of £6,219,000; the so-called regular estimate for 1881-2 displayed a surplus of £1,577,000, instead of £855,000, which was all that Major Baring had felt justified in expecting twelve months before; and the Budget estimate for 1882-3 also showed a small surplus of £285,000. These are the totals for the three years, of which the Indian Budget always takes cognizance. But there are numerous questions of the highest importance on which the Indian Financial Member of Council usually finds it convenient to dwell on the introduction of the Budget, and in Major Baring's speech some of these call for special notice. The cost of the Afghan war, for instance, proved to have amounted to no less than £17,551,000, exclusive of £4,060,000 for frontier railways, the whole being spread over five years. Opium is a vexed question with two sides—the financial and the moral—the latter of which is most strenuously attacked in England. It was not necessarily within Major Baring's purview to enter on this phase of the question, but the masterly and yet fair and unprejudiced way in which he vindicated the policy of the Indian Government as regards the drug should commend itself to the

serious attention of their opponents. He asked for a definite explanation of the alternative policy which it is sought to substitute for the existing state of things, and pointed out that such a policy, to be productive of some practical good, must aim not only at the disconnection of the Indian Government with the manufacture and sale of opium, but at the total suppression of the cultivation of the poppy. It is freely asserted that the consumption of opium was forced upon the Chinese by the British Government on the negotiation of the Treaty of Tientsin. Mr. Lay and Mr. Laurence Oliphant, the two secretaries to the mission, have both certified to the groundlessness of this statement, and shown that a proposal to omit the drug from the tariff was actually declined by the Chinese Commissioner. From time to time numerous edicts, couched in peremptory terms, have undoubtedly been issued in China, prohibiting the use of opium and the cultivation of the poppy; but though the Chinese Government may be credited with sincerity in wishing to put down the evil, it is perfectly clear that they can neither afford the loss of revenue at present derived therefrom nor control the innumerable corrupt officials who earn a livelihood from the use of the native drug. The matter can hardly be better summed up than in the words of the Chinese Government themselves. On Sir Thomas Wade asking four ministers at the Yamen for an expression of the views of the Government on the point, they replied that the Chinese Government would be glad to stop opium smoking altogether, but that the habit was too confirmed to be stopped by official intervention. No idea of abolishing the trade at present was in the mind of the Government. Any serious attempt to check the evil, they added, must originate with the people themselves, for to diminish the imports from India would affect Chinese revenue, but would not reach the root of the mischief. It is unnecessary to say more to prove that the Indian Government can hardly be considered responsible, under these circumstances, for the Chinese consumption of the drug, while there can be no doubt that the imposition of fresh taxes in India sufficient to take the place of the opium revenue, which varies at present between six and eight millions net, would entail the greatest possible misery on the people of India.

The duty on salt, an article of prime necessity in India, especially to those in the eastern and southern parts of the Empire, whose diet requires more saline admixture than those in the north, is now lowered to two rupees per maund, except in the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab and in Burma, where, for local reasons, a far lower rate prevails. It is hoped that this step will

result in increased consumption. The duties on imported cotton goods, together with the general import duties levied on thirty-one main heads, comprising many hundreds of items, many of which give rise to the most perplexing problems in considering claims for exemption, have been abolished at a net loss to the revenue of £1,108,000, but with a considerable gain in convenience to the commercial community and to Government, not to speak of the increased trade and concomitant benefits which may be confidently hoped to result from so enlightened a measure. The special duties—namely, those on wine, beer, spirits and liquors—will remain; as will also the duties on arms and ammunition, salt and opium. With these exceptions, no import duties of any kind will in the future be levied in India. By the adoption of these measures India will be far more free than before to exchange her exportable produce for the products of other lands, while the expansion of trade will also undoubtedly give a stimulus to railway construction. On the whole, therefore, Major Baring's Budget may be pronounced as well deserving the congratulations so freely bestowed on it in Parliament and elsewhere, and as forming a conspicuous mark in a not uneventful year.

On the introduction of the Budget, opportunity was taken by General Wilson to explain that important changes will be made in the native army, which will result in both economy and increased efficiency, the main tendency of these reforms being to strengthen the force of each individual native regiment, and to reduce the number of regiments themselves, the general effect of the measures being, however, to cause no real diminution in the aggregate general strength of the three armies, which will be actually increased by 31 men\*. These changes form a modified part of a far larger scheme of military reform, drawn up by the Army Commission, an important body, composed of some of the most distinguished civil and military Indian officers, presided over by Sir A. Eden, late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and convened in the year 1879 with the object of making an exhaustive inquiry into the whole military system of India, with a view to reduction of expenditure. The report of the Commission is, of course, in embryo, and unpublished; but it is an open secret that among its various recommendations, which are now before the home Government, is one dealing with the present system, by which there are local commander-in-chiefs at Madras and Bombay instead of lieu-

\* The correctness of these official figures has been impugned. It is contended in India that since 1856 the native army has been enormously diminished, and that even since 1878 it has been cut down to the extent of more than 9,000 men.

tenant-generals at the head of army corps, and subordinate to one Commander-in-Chief for all India. During the Afghan war, the inconvenience of the present condition of things was such that one distinguished general remarked that employing troops from Bengal and Bombay was not like operating with one army, but that our campaigners were in exactly the same position as if two allied armies were in the field.

Troubles in Nepaul remind us very strongly that a country surrounded by a girdle of semi-civilised Oriental States can never hope to be exempt from disquietude whenever her neighbours are similarly affected. At the beginning of the present year, intelligence reached us of a conspiracy in Khatmandu, the Nepaulese capital; and more recent information has shown it to have been of a more serious character than was first apprehended. The newly-made King is only a puppet, while the real rulers are Sir Rundip Singh, Prime Minister, and Shumshere Jung, Commander-in-Chief. Both these appointments were formerly held by Sir Jung Bahadur, the late Prime Minister, during whose life Nepaul was governed with firmness and judgment. Shumshere Jung has proved to be very unpopular, especially with the soldiers; and this, coupled with the undoubted popularity of General Juggut Jung, eldest son of Sir Jung Bahadur, has, no doubt, helped to add fuel to the conspiracy, which has been smouldering for some time. On the eve of the outbreak, one of the conspirators turned traitor, and the result was that no less than eighty-five persons were arrested as implicated in the plot, which was to throw a bomb into the room where the Council of the Commander-in-Chief and other Sirdars were assembled, and cut down those who endeavoured to escape. Twenty-one of the conspirators not only acknowledged their complicity in the scheme, but boldly avowed their regret at its failure. These were accordingly condemned to speedy death, the sentence being carried out by executioners armed with the *khookrie*, or curiously-shaped knife, which our Ghoorka sepoys know how to handle with such dexterity. General Juggut Jung, who also proved to be implicated, was on the point of leaving India for Nepaul when the news of the detection of the plot and the executions reached him. He accordingly remained at Patna in company with some of his followers, but his eventual return to Nepaul may not improbably be arranged, owing to his popularity there. Nepaul is not one of the Indian Native States; but its close proximity to our territory for an extended length of frontier from the North-West Provinces to Eastern Bengal, and its trade intercourse with our people, make a peaceable condition of things

and a good understanding between the two countries a matter of necessity. Since the return of our Resident, Mr. Girdlestone, to the capital, matters have settled down, and quiet has since prevailed.

In March last, disturbances were reported from Karond or Kalahandi, a small feudatory native State in the Central Provinces, occupying a high and fairly fertile region behind the Eastern Ghats. The Khonds, as the aborigines are called, are a wild and barbarous people, and the policy of the late Rajah was to substitute for them the Kultas, a class of Hindu cultivators of much greater energy and skill. A bitter feeling appears thus to have sprung up between the two nationalities; and in January this came to a head, and nearly 150 villages were pillaged by the Khonds. Beyond this no deeds of violence appear to have been then committed, and the prompt arrival on the scene of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces resulted in the restoration of about half of the plundered property. While, however, Mr. Berry, a member of the Civil Service, deputed to set things in order and enquire into grievances, was engaged on his task, a second rising took place, this time accompanied by bloodshed and circumstances of horrible cruelty. Thanks to the energy and courage of Mr. Berry and Mr. Prendergast, of the Ganjam police, supported by a mere handful of police officers, the massacre was not suffered to spread, though it appears certain that about a hundred Kultas, including women and children, were barbarously killed. Troops were promptly despatched to the vicinity, but the Khonds, though cruel and predisposed to bloodshed (as may be inferred when we remember that the notorious Meriah or human sacrifices were formerly practised by them), are, nevertheless, timid, and have a wholesome dread of superior force. Since the appointment of Colonel Ward, an officer of position and experience, to the temporary charge of the country, events have been happily tranquil.

Considerable progress has been made with railway construction during the period under review. The total amount of mileage open for traffic on the last day of June was 9,875 miles, by far the largest portion of which has been constructed by guaranteed companies, the remainder having been undertaken either wholly by, or with the assistance of, the British Government, while about 500 miles have been laid by the rulers of native States. Among the various new railways or extensions of existing lines taken in hand recently may be mentioned a line from Dibrugarh (a town in Assam, on the Brahmaputra River, whither steamers run from Calcutta) to Sadiya, our extreme station in the direction of China, and a

point of great importance in the event of a trade route being successfully opened between the two countries. A liberal guarantee has been given by Government in the case of this line, which is expected to be opened in the course of 1883. The railway between Attock and Peshawar, our chief frontier station in a diametrically opposite direction, is now in use; and with the exception of the bridging of the Indus River, railway communication has thereby been made continuous between Calcutta and our north-west frontier. The bridge over the Indus will be a massive and important structure, consisting of two spans, each of 300 feet, and three lesser ones of 250 feet each. The trains will run on the top of the girders, and below there will be a roadway for ordinary traffic and artillery, 117 feet above the mean level of the river. The line running north-westward from the Indus Valley Railway into the Baluch Hills, towards the Bolan Pass, has its terminus still at Sibi, and its returns show an increased traffic during the past year both in passengers and goods, notwithstanding the decrease in trade consequent on our retirement from Candahar. In the event of hostilities beyond this frontier, its value would be almost incalculable, when we think that during the Afghan war a single railway train did with tolerable ease in a day of sixteen hours what 2,500 camels would have taken a fortnight to accomplish.

In the west of India, an important system of railways has been sanctioned, with the double object of establishing connection between the Portuguese Railway at Marmagao, the Madras, and the Great Indian Peninsular Railways, and of opening up districts hitherto ill supplied with means of communication, either for commercial purposes or as a preventive against famine. The whole scheme has recently been placed by Government in the hands of a company, with certain guaranteed advantages. In British Burmah railway operations have been attended with marked success, the Rangoon and Prome line having within four years of its completion yielded profits at the rate of five per cent. per annum. Other lines, and numerous important engineering works in connection with them, are either sanctioned or in various stages of construction.

Indian railway construction has gone through various phases of policy—viz., the guarantee system started by Lord Dalhousie, the system of state railways introduced by Lord Lawrence, and more recently a return to the agency of companies, who, by a modified guarantee, or by arrangements involving no ultimate assistance, are now undertaking railways wholly on their own merits. This latter phase of development is gratifying, indicating,

as it does, that Indian railways are beginning to prove a sure and generally recognised medium of profitable investment.

Towards the end of July last, the publication of a Government Resolution threw a good deal of light on the efforts made of late years to expand the trade between India and Australia. It was due, in the first instance, we believe, to Mr. O'Connor, the able and energetic compiler of a varied series of reports on Indian trade, that the possibility of founding markets for Indian produce in Australia was first brought into prominent notice. The Melbourne Exhibition of 1880 afforded a special opportunity for putting these views into practice, and with Government aid a syndicate of merchants for promoting the sale of Indian tea in Australia was formed. This step has had the most successful result; a large market for Indian tea has been actually formed, and the shipments have greatly increased. As regards other goods, however, the aggregate value exhibited was insignificant compared to the exhibits of other countries, and the prospect of obtaining a large sale for them at present is not promising. There was a universal complaint of want of "finish," whether in regard to tasar cloths, to the packing and preparation of Indian teas, or to the "drums" in which Indian oils find their way to the Australian market. Indian producers will do well to take heed of this hint, for there can be no doubt that the proximity of the two countries and their respective resources should enable their merchants to open many a profitable field of commercial enterprise. In addition to tea, jute, and rice, there appears to be a growing demand in Australia for Indian coffee, spices, oils, and cotton goods, in exchange for which Australia offers copper, horses, hops, wool, fruit, dairy produce, and flour.

A very painful impression in Mahomedan circles and throughout India generally has been created by the occurrence of some horrible riots at Salem, in the Madras Presidency, on the 16th of August. These disturbances seem to have had their origin in the religious animosity between the Hindus and Mahomedans, and the former being far the more numerous took the opportunity to organise a massacre of the Mahomedans, which was perpetrated with circumstances of revolting cruelty. The principal mosque at Shevapett was razed to the ground, and its rich furniture totally destroyed. Troops, hurried up from Bangalore, have fortunately prevented further riots. One hundred and fifty-three arrests have been made.

The last item which calls for mention in a review of Indian events has a significance in connection with the steps taken of

late years to promote the extended employment of natives in the service of the Government. During the absence on privilege leave of the Chief Justice of Bengal, Lord Ripon has availed himself of the fact of a native gentleman, Mr. Justice Mitter, being at the head of the list of puisne judges to depart from the traditional rule of appointing a European as acting judge. The personal fitness of the new acting Chief Justice is a matter which may be safely left to the Executive; the public are, therefore, concerned only with the general policy of the step, and the almost universal approval with which this has been received in both British and native circles seems to form an additional proof that the liberal and enlightened policy pursued by us in our dealings with our fellow subjects in the East is being gradually but surely understood.



## THE ECONOMIC HISTORY OF THE YEAR.

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THE year 1882 has been marked by economic events sufficiently notable to warrant its taking rank with some of the more stirring years of a remarkable decade. Indeed, when looked at superficially, the financial and trade currents will seem to have set in opposite directions, the one pursuing a path of retrogression, the other a path of progress, in this way presenting a contradictory phase likely to prove, unless closely inspected, not a little perplexing. To understand these movements, and at the same time to reconcile them, it is essential to make a brief retrospect of what went before. An economic event is not of one day's making. What seems to be its immediate determining cause finds its roots stretching far back, and embracing a long series of occurrences that have become either obscured by time owing to their seeming insignificance, or, from their magnitude, have kept attention engrossed rather with their direct and immediate workings than with the influence they have exerted on after history. Thus, to appreciate the ebb and flow of trade and finance in 1882, which, during the opening month, promised to mark a new departure after a long period of widespread depression that was brought to a close at the end of 1879 by a sharp but transient spurt of exuberant speculation, we must go back to the beginning of the decade, and trace the course of those events that ended in the great liquidations of 1873-8, and prepared the way for that period of prosperity on which the world seems to be once more entering.

To what extent the great revival in 1872 was respectively due to the termination of the Franco-German War, or to the *exploitation* of new countries, the resumption in the older ones of railway building, and to the re-awakening of general enterprise that had been temporarily suspended in consequence of the struggle between the two leading Continental Powers, it would be impossible to say. For our purpose it is sufficient to recognise that the impulse given to business in all its branches developed an activity that seemed to have no bounds, and fostered a spirit of speculation that completely outran both the earning and consuming power of the world to support. The overflow into Austria of the

money paid by France to Germany by way of indemnity called into existence innumerable financial enterprises altogether beyond the wants and resources of the country. Floating was converted into fixed capital at an unprecedented rate in the construction of railways, and the source of supply ultimately failing, the edifice thus reared tottered, and came tumbling to the ground in the Vienna Crisis of May, 1873. In America, where the commitments to railway building had been on an immense scale, the speculation culminated a few months later in a panic, the dimensions of which threw into the shade anything of the kind that had occurred before in that country, thus deepening the gloom and distress that had previously fallen on European financial circles. In 1874 the financial crisis, which had now become general, was continued in this country with more than its former severity, and in 1875 an immense amount of unsoundness that had until then lay hidden was brought to light by the great Collie failures. This was accompanied by the default of Turkey, and the cessation of interest payments by various other countries, and the distress it wrought was aggravated in its general effect by the occurrence of an exceptionally bad harvest. The following year witnessed a continuance of the financial and trade disorganisation set up by the events thus sketched, and in 1877 the turmoil, excitement, and apprehension occasioned by the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war added its force to the disorganising influences already in operation. Among these latter may be mentioned a succession of bad harvests all over the world, resulting in an immense direct loss of capital and diminished consuming power among the poor as also among the more well-to-do working-classes of all countries; and the occurrence of famines both in India and South America. Added to the anxieties bred of this concurrence of evils, the success of the Russian arms in the Balkan provinces, and the steady advance on Constantinople, brought within measurable distance the prospect of a European conflagration, and intensified the previously existing paralysis in all business circles. The meeting of the Berlin Congress, and the retirement of Russia from the threatening attitude she had assumed, caused a revival of hope, which was signalled by a great outburst of speculation in the Stock Exchange and on the Continental Bourses, and soon indications were afforded that a new trade movement was afoot. For some months these signs increased, and business men, whose minds were now released from the shackling fears that had for about five years stunted their energies, began once more to look forward with hope. To aid the new movement, and give it something like fixity, the wheat harvest, which had in the three pre-

vious years been deficient, as compared with an average, by about 25 per cent., proved up to the standard. The recovery that ensued was, however, destined to be but short-lived. Severe as had been the test applied to all financial interests, it had yet failed to bring to the surface a mass of unsoundness that had lurked hidden and unsuspected in the Eastern trade, and which had been preserved from detection by, perhaps, the most gigantic system of speculation and fraud, and the most reckless manufacture of bills, ever brought to light. In October, 1878, the City of Glasgow Bank failure occurred, bringing to the ground in its ruin several public and private institutions, carrying desolation into hundreds of homes, and shattering in all directions the new-born credit and the aspirations of the financial and mercantile communities. The effect of this disaster was keenly felt during the spring and summer of 1879; but a few months later, when it was discovered that the rottenness thus laid bare was confined to a comparatively small area, distrust subsided, and the way was once more prepared for a full response to that great revival in the United States that flowed from the resumption of specie payments. From the iron trade, which felt the first impulse, the movement spread throughout the metal markets generally; Mincing Lane was quickly drawn into the vortex of the revival; and our trade relations with India acquired an animation traceable partly to the sudden spring in the metal and produce markets, but in a large measure to the greater prosperity of the Indian people, who had begun to recover from the effects of the previous famines, and to the clearing of the overcharged commercial atmosphere which resulted from the sweeping away of the City of Glasgow Bank and its pestilent *entourage*. The improvement thus initiated was continued during the early months of 1880, but received a check owing to the Dissolution of Parliament and the General Election. This lull, which continued until about October, and was marked by a general reduction in the prices of the leading commodities from their previously inflated level, was not, however, without its obvious advantages, and when the forward movement was resumed it was shorn of much of its speculative characteristics, and rested on the solid basis of an immensely expanded demand in the United States for British manufactures of all kinds.

The revival, which had thus secured for itself a safe footing, but which, in its initial stages, had evoked in many quarters expressions of alarm on the score of its seeming spuriousness continued to make progress in 1881, and despite the interruption to general business caused during the first quarter by the unprece-

dented severity of the weather, yet the foreign and home trade of the country marked an advance on the prosperity of the previous year. Moreover, this advance took place notwithstanding the poor harvest, but for which the comparison would have been rendered much more favourable. In America the wheat crops also proved disappointing, but the effect of our own loss was greatly mitigated by the immense profusion with which cheap bread stuffs poured in from Australia and India. The animation and prosperity in general business, which had thus endured for fully two years, was accompanied throughout its whole course by an immense speculative movement in all the stock markets of Europe, and to this rather than to the requirements of legitimate trade must be assigned the steady advance in the value of money here and upon the Continent, although, on the other hand, the elevation of the rates in Lombard Street was stimulated in great measure by the export of gold to America in payment for wheat, and to Italy in connection with the loan operations of the Italian Government, who were engaged in preparations for the withdrawal of the paper currency, and the introduction of a gold standard. The combined effect, however, of a deficient harvest and dear rates for money on speculation were irresistible, and at the extreme close of the year symptoms of a reaction began to manifest themselves, which were destined to develop into a Financial Crisis in France that was happily confined to that country, and failed to materially retard the general business movement.

The review of the preceding decade of financial and trade currents which we have thus briefly gone over, in order to clear the ground for a better understanding of the history of the past year, and for getting a firmer grasp of the threads of those events that were to influence the future, has laid bare two main facts of importance. The first is that from 1873 to the end of 1878 the financial and commercial world went through a thorough course of cleansing from the unsoundness and rottenness that had crept into and settled itself deeply in every part of its system during the "fat" years 1868-70 and 1872-3, when the excessive issue of foreign loans, implying a great draft on our floating capital, the over-building of railways, and general over-production were in the ascendant. The reaction that commenced in 1873 was aggravated by a succession of bad harvests in some of the raw-material producing countries, whose sole dependence is on the prosperity of the wealthy manufacturing countries of the West; a consequent and extensive repudiation of foreign loans, the floating of which had mainly gone to enrich

their promoters ; and a general drawing in of production. In the interval, the process of weeding out unhealthy growths went side by side with an effort to bring into better adjustment the producing and consuming capacities of the world. Both were, however, held in restraint by previous losses and the disorganisation of credit ; but when the tide turned it was found that the first had been quietly but insensibly made good, while the other had correspondingly gathered strength. America, as might naturally be expected from her youth, vigour, and unbounded extent of rich territory and resources, first gave the signal for a re-awakening. It was quickly caught up by the older, but less supple and enthusiastic, countries of the western world, and the forward movement thus commenced has since been continued, with a few occasional but salutary checks that are the best guarantee of its permanence.

In the Money Market, the year 1882 opened with the Bank rate at 5 per cent., to which it had been raised early in the previous October. The main cause of the advance was the heavy drain of gold to America, where money had grown stringent in consequence of a sudden contraction in the note circulation made by the National Banks, who took fright at the refunding proposals of the United States Legislature. To what extent the contraction of the currency was due to the "cornering" of money by "cliques" of Stock Exchange operators attracted by the favourable opportunity thus afforded to tighten the money market and precipitate a breakdown in the value of securities, it is impossible to say. The immediate effect of the stringency was to cause a well-sustained efflux of gold from this side, and between the 20th July and the 5th October, 1881, £3,100,000 was withdrawn from the Bank, while the total reserve fell from £15,000,000 to £10,300,000. The rise in the Bank rate notwithstanding, the drain continued, but no further measures were taken to arrest the movement, although the low rumbling of an approaching storm from the side of France became faintly audible during the closing weeks of the year. This inactivity was, however, in no small measure due in the first instance to a widely diffused impression that the stringency in the New York money market was chiefly of artificial production, and destined, therefore, to speedily subside. Well-informed American financial journals averred in September that several large capitalists in Wall Street drew cheques for immense sums, had them "certified," and in this way compelled the banks to lock up an equivalent amount of cash in their boxes, thus drawing capital away from the loan market, tightening the rates,

and depressing the European exchanges. This expedient, which was resorted to with the main object of producing a fall in the Stock Exchange, was no doubt an important factor ; but the chief force at work was unquestionably the excessive ardour with which the United States Government were engaged in extinguishing the Debt. To effect this object, cash to an enormous extent was being steadily abstracted from the market and stored in the Treasury vaults, awaiting release in the paying off of called bonds. Thus by the 1st September the total accumulation in gold, silver, State notes, and other values, amounted to no less than £64,000,000. When a government absorbs and keeps in its hands from £200,000 to £230,000 a day, the effect on the money market must in time become sufficiently marked to require little supplementing from outside private agencies. It has unfortunately become too patent in recent years to need special insistence that the ill-directed action and meddlesomeness of the United States Legislature in banking matters have been fraught with trouble and perplexity not only to the local money markets, but to financial interests throughout the world. It is true that of late the rapid redemption of Debt, which is now progressing at a rate that promises to extinguish the whole in about ten years, throws from time to time an immense amount of money on the market, but the interval between each purchase of bonds for the Sinking Fund is occupied by a gathering in of funds that, on occasion, seriously disorganises business calculations. But for the jealous way in which the Washington Treasury guards its money, this might easily be avoided ; and it is scarcely a compliment to the great banking community of the United States that it is entrusted with no part in the keeping of the immense amount of cash thus hoarded and withdrawn from its legitimate function as a fertiliser of commerce. The Bill for refunding the Debt at 3 per cent. as originally framed was not free from indications of the extraordinary obliquity of vision which is a leading characteristic of United States financiers. By a clause inserted in that Bill the banks were to take the new bonds bearing the lower rate of interest in exchange for those they held to guarantee their note circulation, but were to be prohibited from selling them. The immediate result of this was to cause a large contraction of the circulation, with which object the old bonds were surrendered. From this at once flowed considerable stringency in the money market, and drafts on the stock of gold in Europe to make good the deficiency. Although this measure was not followed up, the position remained extremely sensitive, and a normal tone was scarcely re-established when a new source of dis-

turbance was opened up by the uncertainty felt as to the intentions of the Legislature in regard to the renewal of the expiring Charters of the National Banks. Of the 2,100 National Banks in existence in September, 1881, having a combined capital of close upon £92,000,000, and surplus funds amounting to £25,000,000, 366, with an aggregate capital of £16,800,000, and a note circulation of £12,500,000, had Charters that, in the ordinary course of things, would expire between July and February, 1882-3. The note circulation of these banks being secured on an equivalent holding of United States Bonds, the surrender of the latter and the withdrawal of the former would have been a first step in the process of enforced re-organisation. The derangement to the money market and general business which such a liquidation would have involved may readily be conceived; and the anxiety felt in banking and other circles until the tardily-avowed plans of the Government became known was correspondingly great. The ultimate passage through the House of Representatives of the Bank Charter Extension Bill, and its adoption by the Senate, finally set apprehension at rest, and was of hopeful augury for those institutions the unexpired term of whose Charters would have proved a period of much harassing perplexity. These matters are, however, referred to in order rather to disclose a condition of things that reacted on Lombard Street, which quickly feels any shock imparted to the Trans-Atlantic market, than to enlarge on the inexpediency of Legislative tinkering with banking affairs.

The drain of gold to America during the closing months of 1881, due to our large purchases of corn, was to be followed later on by an extensive withdrawal of the metal for France. There had not been wanting signs that the rampant speculation in France had reached a point full of menace to numerous important financial interests, and that affairs were reaching a crisis of unusual magnitude and severity in that country. Still, the tendency of the London market was towards ease; and early in January, with the Bank rate standing at 5 per cent., the brokers lowered their terms for deposits from 4 and  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  and  $3\frac{3}{4}$  per cent., while the open market rate for three months' drafts, consequent on the cessation of the export demand for gold for New York, dropped to 4 per cent. At the end of January, however, the troubles that had been maturing in France came to a head. The signal was given by the breaking up of speculation in Lyons and the failure of the *Banque de Lyon et de la Loire*. The *Union Générale* immediately afterward closed its doors; panic seized the Paris Bourse, and spread to the Berlin, Vienna,

and other markets, and the whole speculative edifice was in full process of dissolution, involving in its collapse immense numbers of people in all classes of French society, from the little *ouvrier* to the wealthy and distinguished aristocrat. The keystone of the edifice which thus crumbled in the space of a few days was the *Union Générale*. During the two years '80 '81 a fever of speculation raged in France with extraordinary intensity. Public companies were formed, some with definite, others with no very clear objects. Groups of bankers and capitalists were formed to run up the shares of the new-born undertakings to premiums of fabulous dimensions. After a while money came forth from the obscurest corners to obtain a share in the great movement that promised gains irrespective of dividend, and the greed engendered by the apparent success of the speculation cleared the way for the launching of every species of undertaking, whether there was a legitimate field for it or not. The new capital issues in 1881 amounted to £93,000,000, divided among about four hundred new companies, as compared with £18,000,000 in the previous year, and £33,000,000 in 1879. This speculative fever was fed by the formation of the *Union Générale*, which was designed to rally in a powerful banking phalanx the Catholic capitalists of the country, large and small, with a view to breaking down the political and financial power that had until now been wielded by the Jewish and Freethinking element. This religio-financial crusade, at the head of which the representatives of the *ancienne noblesse* ranged themselves, received the Pontifical blessing, and the 500 franc shares rose to close upon 3,000 francs. At the meeting that took place in November, 1881, M. Bontoux, the father and leading spirit of the concern, drew a sketch of its future profits well calculated to stagger the minds of business men. The profits on a single year's operations were set down at £1,440,000, and the deposits fixed for a period of four years amounted, it was averred, to £5,200,000. Amazed as people were by these and other glowing details, which comprised a description of the world-embracing financial schemes of the company, they nevertheless accepted them as substantial truths, and scarcely wavered in their faith until, three months later, the crash came, disclosing, in place of the magnificent profits spoken of, an empty cash-box, and a deficit of close upon £4,000,000. To stay the tide of panic that ensued, the French Government, aided by the Bank of France, and the more powerful and stable of financial institutions, stepped in; advances were made on almost every species of security that had a money value, and the liquidation that followed was thus safeguarded against the more disastrous accessories that at first threatened



to accompany it. In Lyons, where the spirit of gambling had run riot, the ruin was complete. The prices of good and bad stocks alike gave way with a rush, and heavy drafts were made on the gold in the Bank of England, partly to pay for the bankrupt stocks sold in this market for French account, and partly in the transference of French balances from London to Paris. To arrest this movement the Bank of England rate was raised on the 30th January 6 per cent., 7 per cent. and upwards being charged for advances. By the middle of the following month gold began to return from Paris, the stringency abated, and on the 23rd of February the Bank rate was lowered to 5 per cent.

From this point the return to a normal condition was uninterrupted by further untoward events; stock exchange business, both here and upon the continent, gradually revived; and on the 9th of March the Bank rate was lowered to 4 per cent., this being succeeded by a descent to 3 per cent. on the 28th of the same month. From that date the position of the money market remained undisturbed, the gold requirements of the Italian Government which sprang up in the interval having been met by the large supplies of the metal that came from New York. For a time, however, the political crisis in Egypt, which culminated in the bombardment of the forts at Alexandria early in July, threatened to once more tighten the money market, owing to the break-down it precipitated in the Stock Exchange; but this also passed away, and a period of extremely cheap money again set in. Soon after the distribution of the July dividend the rate for short loans descended to barely 1 per cent., and three months' bills were placed below 2 per cent. Meanwhile a reduction in the Bank rate was prevented by the political complications in the East, and by the weakness of the Paris Exchange. It was, however, regarded as doubtful if the Bank would have come down even if these impediments had not arisen. Indeed, the open market had come to regard the policy of the central institution as outside the domain of ordinary calculation. The Bank rate, which was formerly designated the "official minimum," has lost its original character through the practice of the Bank in discounting below its published charge. The fiction of an "official minimum," co-existing with a shifting working rate, has proved irritating in the extreme to large financial institutions whose operations are based upon the fixed Bank rate; and the annoyance has been by no means mitigated by the new practice of the Bank in compelling borrowers of money for short periods to put on their loans for a minimum term of ten instead of, as formerly, for five days, thus keeping out in the

market for an undue time a mass of idle money that weighs on the market, depresses the rates, and intensifies the embarrassments of those institutions and firms whose allowance for the bulk of the money they have to work with is regulated purely by the published charge of the Bank of England.

The fact that owing to a sudden and altogether unforeseen drain of gold to Paris early in August, the Bank rate had to be raised to 4 per cent. on the 17th of that month, and that on the 14th of September a further advance to 5 per cent. was necessitated in order to keep pace with the banks of Germany, Holland, and Belgium, who put up their rates in order to stay a similar but temporary drain, to which they were also subject, appears at first sight to strip the complaints of the open market in regard to the working of the Bank of England of much of their importance; but from other considerations it is yearly becoming more manifest that the central institution is getting out of joint with the general market and with the times. Instead of acting as a support and guide to Lombard Street, it becomes on occasion a source of weakness, and an object of distrust. The control it once exercised has gradually slipped from its grasp, and to a perception of this loss of power, which may in a large measure be traced to the increasing ardour of its competition with the outside market, is perhaps due the recent changes of policy referred to. The antagonism that thus begins to spring up between the open market and the Bank promises to gather strength; and discussion becomes more frequent regarding the necessity of adopting some more real and permanent standard of value than the Bank rate now affords. No practical suggestion has so far been made, but the matter engages an increasing amount of attention; and all the symptoms are present of an approaching alteration in the existing system.

Although the value of money in Lombard Street steadily tended downward until the end of July, and has not since risen to a seriously high level, the other conditions favourable to the launching of new companies have not been such as to encourage their extension on the scale witnessed in 1881. One reason of this is doubtless to be found in the quietude of trade, and the serious depreciation sustained by various classes of Stock Exchange securities, principally foreign loans, that resulted from the Paris Crisis and the insurrectionary movement in Egypt. Moreover, the absence of practical results from the Indian gold mines, into which investors were a year or two ago drawn with so much eagerness and enthusiasm, has engendered some distrust of new concerns, while an additional check has been imposed by the breakdown of the Electric Light Company mania, which was at

its height in May. Solid ventures of a tried character have elicited a ready response from the investing public, but no schemes that did not bear on their face the stamp of genuineness and reasonable promise of success have enjoyed a cordial reception. The Limited Liability Act, as applied to joint-stock banks, has gained, among other adherents, the Union of London and the London Joint Stock, and there is now no purely English institution of importance that holds aloof from a measure designed to avert a repetition of the calamities that flowed from the collapse of the City of Glasgow Bank.

In regard to Imperial finances, these have been altogether colourless. The Budget proved commonplace to a degree. Mr. Gladstone left untouched Sir Stafford Northcote's modification of the probate duties, which he had so severely condemned, and a reform of the wine duties, which had been expected as a result of the failure of the commercial negotiations with France, was also passed over, while the Local Government Bill, from which a reform of local government taxation was expected, also had to be passed by, owing to the more urgent and pressing calls made on the attention of Government by the state of affairs in Ireland. The estimates for the current year fixed the total expenditure at £84,630,000, being a reduction of £842,000 on the actual expenditure of the previous year, and the Revenue, including various windfalls, among which may be mentioned the contributions of the Cape Colony and of the Transvaal in connection with the cost of the late wars, is set down at £84,935,000. Mr. Gladstone proposed to make an addition to the carriage duty which, it was estimated, would have brought in an extra £247,000, the object of this measure being to give some compensation to local ratepayers for the abolition of the turnpike tolls. But the plan was met by so much opposition that it had to be abandoned, and the estimated surplus for the year from all sources was thereby reduced from £555,000 to £308,000. On the 20th July Mr. Gladstone announced to the House that he should ask for a Vote of Credit to enable the Government to carry out the necessary military operations for suppressing the insurrectionary movement in Egypt. This demand was formally made to Parliament on the 24th, and after a debate that extended over a few days, £2,300,000 was voted. The Tax Bill was thereupon brought forward, and provision made for ultimately covering the credit thus granted by an addition of 1½d. in the pound to the income-tax. To meet the immediate war expenses of the Government a fresh issue of £300,000 Treasury Bills was made on the 6th August. As to financial and general economic legisla-

tion, the year has been absolutely barren. Several measures of importance to business interests have been ripe for discussion, but the path has been absolutely blocked by Irish affairs and the Egyptian Crisis.

The foreign trade of the country during the year showed a steady progress, which, although inferior in point of the actual percentage of growth as compared with the previous year, nevertheless marked a substantial aggregate improvement in spite of the low point to which the prices of the leading staples had descended. Indeed, if proof were needed that our foreign trade relations have been a source of profit, no better one could be afforded than the gradual dying out of the Protectionist agitation, which now and then springs up in bad times and drags out an unhealthy and precarious existence, dependent the while on the gloom, disappointment, and general *malaise* incident to diminished business activity and low profits. Sir Stafford Northcote, during the autumn of last year, definitely pronounced against the expediency of imposing protective duties either on food-stuffs or on the raw materials of manufactures; and Lord Salisbury, despite the many occasions on which he has come near shaking hands with the "Reciprocitarians," condemned, in explicit terms, the pursuit of economic ideas completely out of harmony with the times, though this condemnation was, perhaps, hardly given the wide reach that thorough-going free-traders could have desired. Although the economic soil of this country is becoming yearly less favourable to the growth of protectionist heresies, the same cannot be said of the situation abroad. Negotiations for a commercial treaty with France were renewed in September, but it became evident from the outset that a radical divergence between the commercial views of the two countries had sprung up, and that there was little chance of a maintenance of the partial Free Trade relations that had endured since 1860. The failure of the negotiations that took place in 1876 and 1880 were in a measure due to the not over-wise attitude assumed on each occasion by our own Government. In the first case, M. Léon Say asked for a remission in the wine duties in return for substantial remissions of duties—ranging from 20 to 50 per cent.—on iron and steel, coal, machinery, cotton, woollen, linen and jute yarns and fabrics; but Sir Stafford Northcote, who was then Chancellor of the Exchequer, would make no concession, owing doubtless to the depressed condition of trade that affected the revenues to a degree that possibly made him apprehensive of even temporarily diminishing his income from the source referred to. On the second occasion, Mr. Gladstone agreed to a modification of

the duties on wine imported in wood, but proposed to raise those on wine in bottles. The difficulty thus raised was augmented by a proposal of the French Government to substitute specific for *ad valorem* duties. The latter was strenuously resisted in this country, and negotiations were once more suspended. Then came a struggle for the extension of the old Treaty pending the fresh negotiations that were opened in September last on the initiative of Earl Granville. Although the French Government again offered to make concessions in the way of a reduction of duties on the articles already named, the substitution of specific for *ad valorem* duties was still strongly insisted upon, the main reason for the change being the protection it would afford the French Custom House against fraud. For the third time the negotiations failed, and the old Treaty expired. At the end of April the French manufacturing classes sought to once more bring about a resumption of negotiations, but the political developments in the East prevented the movement taking effect. Thus the Treaty of 1860 was replaced by a most favoured nation treaty, which compares not altogether unfavourably with the one that has lapsed. In the Colonies Free Trade principles have made no progress during the year, the only bright spot being the abolition of duties on the import into India on all articles except arms, ammunition, salt, spirits, and opium. A convention has been signed with Portugal giving to this country the most favoured nation treatment and the advantages contained in the Franco-Portuguese Treaty; but no progress can be reported in regard to the question of the Spanish Wine Duties. The Japanese Treaties have been revised, and treaties advantageous to this country have been concluded with Montenegro and the Corea. In the United States the question of a modification of the tariffs has commanded an increasing amount of attention, the farmers in the West having formed organisations with a view to this object. The agitation gathers additional force every day, and marks a new and important phase in the economic movement across the Atlantic. The Democratic, or Free Trade, party have throughout the year made strenuous efforts to bring about a lightening of the burdens imposed by a maintenance of the existing scale of duties, while the Protectionists have been equally active in their opposition, their aim being to keep up the foreign tariffs but to obtain a reduction of the internal duties. In neither direction, however, was actual progress made. The Tax Reduction Bill, after two weeks of discussion in the Senate, was, by a vote of 34 to 26, laid aside on the 27th July; and the Tariff Commission confined its labours for the

most part to taking the views of the Protectionists. Thus there is too much reason for thinking that the time is yet distant when effect will be given to the enlightened demands of the Free Traders. Doubtless the first move towards a return to a more liberal policy will be the reduction of the taxes on the materials employed in ship-building. The condition of the United States mercantile marine has for some time past been engaging an increasing amount of attention, and a Commission, that was subsequently appointed, was asked for in July to inquire into the subject, the purpose of the petitioners being to secure such legislation as would foster home enterprise in this direction, and transfer the ocean-carrying business from foreign to native bottoms. Between 1870 and 1880 the tonnage of the American mercantile marine declined from 1,449,000 tons to 1,314,000 tons, while in the same interval the total imports and exports rose from £165,746,000 to £300,719,000, the imports having increased £46,000,000, or 50 per cent., and the exports £89,000,000, or over 100 per cent. It is evident that a large portion of the exports are merely payment for the accommodation received from foreign shipping. In 1880 as much as £144,000,000 of American exports was carried in foreign vessels, while only £22,000,000 was carried in native bottoms, the figures for 1870 having been respectively £75,000,000 and £36,000,000. These and similar significant facts have begun to impress the intelligent portion of the American people with the costliness of a protective policy, the need of which, if it ever existed, has now passed away.

As already mentioned, the foreign trade of the United Kingdom during the year has been well maintained. Although in one or two branches a falling off in the shipments is discernible as compared with the preceding year, yet, when allowance is made for the great expansion which took place in 1881, the figures do not yield an unfavorable result. Allowance has also to be made for the serious reduction that has occurred in prices during the year. As measured in quantities, an examination of the Board of Trade statistics shows that a largely augmented business has been done; and if the goods sold abroad have brought in less in actual cash, it has to be borne in mind that the raw materials from which they were worked up were also purchased on correspondingly low terms, so that on the double transaction profits cannot as a whole have been materially affected. The shipments of cotton goods to India, which for the nine months ending May had been steadily diminishing—failures in the Calcutta market at the beginning of the year having contributed to the dulness—

underwent a sudden revival in June. Nor was the improvement greatly checked in the following month, despite the outbreak in Egypt, which caused a partial stoppage of the navigation of the Suez Canal, and an imposition on shippers of heavy burdens in the way of war risks, high freights, and various other drawbacks. Other portions of our colonies continued to absorb cotton manufactures on a free scale, but not to an extent to compensate the narrowing of the Eastern markets. Although continental countries were large consumers of coal and iron, a considerable falling off was experienced in the wool forwarded abroad, the smaller scale on which French buyers came forward having in large measure been due to a restriction of enterprise that flowed from the financial Crisis in the early part of the year. The United States continued to be a fairly good customer for iron, railroad materials having alone shown a diminution, and most other leading staples, amongst which may be mentioned linen, silk, woollen and worsted manufactures, were also forwarded across the Atlantic to an increased extent.

As regards the imports, the expansion has been pretty evenly spread over the whole list of the raw materials of manufactures, a notable feature having been the immensely augmented scale on which Indian and Brazilian cotton has reached these shores, a circumstance that has gone far to compensate the falling off in the receipts from America. There has been a sensible reduction in the entries of corn from the latter quarter, while from Russia and India the arrivals have been on a considerably heavier scale than has been experienced for a long time past. Flax, hemp, hides, and raw silk have come to hand freely, and at tolerably low prices, our purchases of the first two articles from Russia having displayed an immense expansion.

Looking at relative movements in the aggregate imports and exports, a fact to be noted is that while the former have expanded much less than the latter, yet the percentage of the excess of imports over exports has largely increased as contrasted with recent years. To a certain school of economists who have displayed considerable activity during the year this result appears matter for much lamentation. To take from the foreigner more goods than we sell him is, from their point of view, tantamount to living upon capital. After all allowance made for the immense claims we have on foreign countries for freights and interest on loans which are liquidated in commodities, as well as for the profits gained on the sales abroad of British manufactures, some economists are still found to proclaim and bewail the fact that there yet remains a yearly balance against the country which is

settled by annually giving up to the foreigner a portion of the national capital. As careful estimates have shown the growth of capital within these shores to be, roundly, £200,000,000 per annum, it remains for the "excess-of-imports" economists to show how such a process of accumulation can be reconciled with a living upon capital. An individual who saves £200 a year out of his earnings could not by any stretch of metaphor be said to be living upon capital, although in certain conceivable circumstances he might be able to put by more of his gains; and what is inapplicable to the economic doings of an individual is equally inapplicable to a nation of which he is at once a unit and, in a measure, a type. But the outcry about the excess of imports, which has been made a sort of *point d'appui* of the Fair Traders and "Reciprocitarians," is yearly becoming fainter as a knowledge of the extent of the national resources and their growth becomes more complete and more widely disseminated; and in time the fallacy it embodies will be laid bare with a completeness that will insure its permanent relegation to that vast domain of plausible fictions in which economic science has been so rich.

The progress made by the home trade has been satisfactory as a whole. Here and there complaints of inactivity or of actual depression have been heard, but the instances of comparative quietude or actual retrogression have been few, and have not materially diminished the general prosperity. This is amply demonstrated by an examination of the Pauper Statistics, the traffic statements of the leading railway companies, and of the Bankers' Clearing House Returns of the Metropolis and Manchester. Taking the monthly aggregates of the latter, the increases thus brought out do not—at least so far as the London returns are concerned—seem at first sight to give very substantial support to this view. But this is only because the totals of bills and cheques cleared on the several Stock Exchange Settling-days have undergone a serious diminution consequent upon the lessened volume of speculative transactions in public securities. Last year, as already pointed out, speculation in Capel Court, and upon the Continental Bourses, was at its height. As prices rose so did the current of business swell; and as each fortnight came round the pressure to carry through the clearings was augmented to an altogether unprecedented extent. As usual in such times, the promoters of public companies found ample and remunerative employment in floating their several schemes, the public subscriptions to which tended still further to swell the volume of paper passed through the Clearing House. At the end of February the clearings on the Stock Exchange Settling-days



began to fall off as compared with the totals of the corresponding period last year; the reduction became more marked in each successive fortnight, and at times the comparison showed a diminution of over £20,000,000. But making allowance for the contracted clearings due to this cause, the aggregate figures, as we have said, disclose a satisfactory expansion. In regard to the traffic receipts of our leading railway companies, the improvement has been general, and from the fact that it has been largely due to the augmented carriage of goods, the inference that an improved trade active has been the motive force is amply warranted. That this improvement has been well diffused—has reached not only the manufacturer and merchant, but has descended to and permeated the lower ranks of the industrial community—is attested by the more encouraging pauper statistics. To which of the three sets of statistics, Clearing House, Railway, and Pauper, chief weight may attach in their common character of trade barometers, it is unnecessary to discuss. It is sufficient to notice that they have pointed in the same direction with a uniformity there can be no possibility of mistaking. Still, that many people should assign chief importance to the returns of pauperism, and scan with a close scrutiny the periodical returns of the Post Office Savings Bank, is not without justification when the whole story these statistics tell comes to be well looked into. Railway and Clearing House returns may on examination yield apparently discouraging results, and, combined with low rates in the Money Market, may seem to warrant the conclusion that general business is waning; but on observing that the two sets of returns that have a more direct bearing on the condition of the masses continue to proclaim progress, such an inference has to be modified, and the range of observation widened, in order to enable the position to be more accurately gauged. If pauperism is diminishing, it is a tolerably good sign that the people are finding employment more or less remunerative, and that those who engage them are doing a more or less profitable business; and if the deposits in the Post Office Savings Bank are increasing, a further proof is afforded that the working classes are earning a margin over and above what is required for their daily support. Other sets of statistics may show a comparative falling off; but while Pauper and Savings Bank returns manifest improvement, evidence is at hand that general business is progressing, although the rate of expansion may be relatively less.

Glancing at the state of the several leading branches of trade during the year, the first point that strikes one is the unevenness that has marked their development. Indeed, while some have

undergone a steady and marked improvement, others have remained stationary, while, again, some few have actually retrograded. The iron trade has shared to the largest extent in the improvement, although in this instance also there have been some fluctuations, incident to the financial and political disturbances already referred to. The production of iron during the greater part of 1881 was on an immensely augmented scale, owing to an expectation of largely increased shipments to the United States, where the consumption had exceeded the home production by fully 1,000,000 tons. During the last quarter of that year large speculative purchases were in consequence made, these operations being stimulated by various favourable rumours regarding the contemplated railway extensions in the States, and the virtual exhaustion of foreign stocks. The outlook at home was at the same time eminently calculated to inspire confidence, and thus, at the end of December, the general feeling was one of unmixed hopefulness, more particularly as the "statistical" position promised to be benefited by the fact that the Scotch and Cleveland iron masters had come to an agreement, at the end of September, to restrict their joint production by  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., commencing on October 1. On the expiration of this agreement, the Cleveland masters decided to continue the restriction for another three months, but the Scotch masters did not follow them. Meanwhile the buoyancy of tone referred to was destined to receive a check in the opening months of the current year, owing, for the most part, to the waning demand for the United States, where the production was stimulated by the high prices current on this side, and by the abandonment on a large scale of several railway undertakings across the Atlantic, caused by the financial troubles that had broken out in France. Stocks in the Glasgow district continued to accumulate, notwithstanding the restriction of production decided on at the end of September, and in February a movement was once more afoot for further curtailing the make. Prices in consequence receded, but in the meantime the activity in the finished iron trade showed no abatement, the demand for steel rails for America and India being well sustained, while the Victorian Government also entered into a heavy contract for the same materials. The orders from the United States continued to fall off, but it soon became apparent that the diminished shipments to that country, which were in no small measure due to the excessive charges for freights, were amply compensated by the inquiry from other foreign points, and by the strength of a steadily improving home demand. The domestic consumption was particularly well sustained throughout

the year, owing to the briskness in the ship-building trade, and to the increasing wants of our railway companies. In regard to the first of these, an immense stimulus grew not only out of the world's requirements, but also out of the great loss of tonnage sustained by wreck. In 1881 the tonnage of vessels built for foreign countries alone exceeded the figures for the previous year by fully 25 per cent. So large had been the surplus production of iron in 1881, that but for the diminished make resolved upon by the Scotch and Cleveland masters, the fall in prices that occurred between the end of December and the beginning of June would have been much more extensive. The Scotch production between the 25th of December and the 3rd of June was less by 30,728 tons, or 6 per cent., than the out-turn in the corresponding period, while in the same interval the exports increased 33,633 tons, or 15 per cent., and the home consumption 71,300 tons, or 35 per cent. The net result of this triple operation, namely, diminished production, increased exports, and enlarged home consumption, was to reduce the stocks  $8\frac{3}{4}$  per cent., the decrease in the stocks in the Cleveland district brought about by the same causes having been  $8\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. The reduction in the latter instance would doubtless have been considerably larger had not consumption been curtailed by a strike in May, which lasted for a fortnight, and which resulted from the refusal of a demand made by the men, despite the sliding scale then in force, for an increase of  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in their pay, in addition to the  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. conceded in February. Another matter that tended to impart steadiness to the market which, in presence of the Egyptian Crisis, would otherwise have been absent, was the occurrence at the beginning of June of extensive strikes in the American iron trade, the movement, which began in the Pennsylvania districts, having quickly spread to Ohio, West Virginia, Missouri, and Kentucky. Moreover, the unfavourable harvest prospects in this country, up to about the end of July, and the brilliant crop prospects in the United States, made it probable that we should become extensive purchasers of wheat across the Atlantic, in payment of which, as in 1879—1880, iron would to a large extent be shipped from this side. Another matter that gave additional encouragement to the market was that although, as already observed, various circumstances had contributed to the shelving of some large railway schemes in the States, new lines, nevertheless, continued to be constructed at a fabulous rate. Thus the total new mileage built in the five months ending June 1 amounted to 3,677 miles, as compared with 1,734 in the corresponding period in 1881. During the whole of the latter year no

less than 9,358 miles had been laid down, which was the largest total recorded for any one year in the railway history of the country, 1871, when 7,379 miles were built, having until then been the most prolific year. For the whole of the current year 10,000 miles of new line, it is estimated, will be laid down. This activity in railway construction in the States, the immense consumption of iron, and the restriction on the imports of the English material imposed by high freights, had much to do in bringing about strikes among the workmen in America for higher wages. The struggle was continued with considerable obstinacy on both sides. And to indicate its dimensions it may be sufficient to mention that in the space of the first two months of its duration, the strikers had lost in wages close upon £1,700,000. By the beginning of August sixteen mills had resumed work, the masters having made concessions, which, however, wrought little change in the original position of the men, and involved a virtual surrender on the part of the latter; and thirteen others recommenced work with non-union hands. Other masters subsequently resumed operations with non-union men, and the power of the Amalgamated Association was seriously shaken by the determination of the masters, whose efforts, it was understood, were mainly guided by a desire to break down the labour unions. In the interval of the struggle, which finally collapsed at the end of September by the surrender of the men, the masters were extensively occupied in repairing the mills; consumption trenched upon production and existing stocks, and the outlook on this side correspondingly improved. Still during the final month or two of the period over which this survey stretches, there was no great disposition among British makers to book fresh orders, owing, firstly, to the low range of prices and to the prospect of an early enhancement. Thus a hand-to-mouth business was done, which, although fairly remunerative, was susceptible of much improvement.

In the manufacturing branches trade has shown a fairly steady improvement throughout the year. In regard to Birmingham, the activity can scarcely be said to have waned at any moment. The demand for general machinery for France, Germany, Belgium, Russia, and Australia, has been well sustained, France and Russia having in this respect been the principal buyers. In Sheffield the heavy departments have shown a no less brisk tone, a leading feature having been the enlarged inquiry for steel plates for new war vessels, that are now constructed with steel facings, owing to the higher resisting power of the latter, as compared with iron coatings hitherto in vogue.

The cotton trade has been subjected to many drawbacks and

derangements, which have told somewhat seriously on spinners. To a large extent the disorganisation that has been periodically reported throughout the year has been due to the course of speculation in America in the raw material. Last year this speculation was carried to considerable lengths in anticipation of a short crop. Immense stocks were accumulated against sales for future delivery, prices were run up, and the arrivals in this country were seriously curtailed. Quotations in Liverpool did not rise to a level sufficiently high to attract the large supplies requisite to maintain the rate of consumption. Towards the end of the year, however, matters in this respect changed somewhat: prices in the Liverpool market advanced; but as spinners had become weary through the almost profitless character of their business, and preferred buying stocks from hand to mouth, quotations failed to reach the parity of American rates, and the deliveries in consequence continued to be much restricted. The speculators in the States had loaded themselves with cotton at high prices in the hope of unloading on English and continental spinners; and in aid of their scheme they sought to work up a "short supply scare." These and other manoeuvres designed to the same end failed of their object, owing to the quietude that came over the manufacturing trade in the opening months of the current year. To add to the embarrassments of the spinners, the consignments of American cotton proved to be adulterated to an extent far beyond anything that had been previously experienced. When bales came to be opened the cotton was found to be dirty, damp, and sandy to an unprecedented extent, and the losses which from this source had before averaged from 16 to 17 per cent., now rose to an average of more than 20 per cent. Where several Oldham firms had looked for fair profits, their balance-sheets finally showed that they had been working at a loss from this one cause alone. Several of the limited companies held meetings with a view to devising measures of protection against this system of fraud; and representations were made to the American Minister in London, samples of the "sophisticated" material being at the same time handed to him in support of the complaint made. The Minister, while expressing himself satisfied that the facts were as represented to him, failed, however, to see in what way it could be remedied, except by public exposure. The matter is an important one for the spinner, whose margin of profit is thus at the outset of his operations subject to an appreciable curtailment. The loss in working the raw material has now to be taken more strictly into account than formerly, and it is found necessary to abandon the old practice of comparison

between the price of the cotton to be worked up and the quotations for yarns and cloth. The spinner and manufacturer are in much the same position in regard to the margin of profit as thus interfered with. The dilemma, moreover, is increased for both should the margin be by any means improved through a remedying of the evil complained of, for an event of the kind, instead of improving their position, would in all likelihood merely form an occasion for an agitation among the workpeople for a share in what might seem an improvement brought about by the ordinary conditions of trade. The perplexities of the trade due to these matters were not a little increased by the fitfulness of the Indian demand. The outbreak of wages disputes in Lancashire at the opening of the year enabled the Manchester market to maintain a firm position, but this was not of long duration. Eastern orders were checked both by the high prices current and the monopoly rates in the Calcutta freight trade. The principal drawback was, however, the over-supplied condition of the Indian markets. This, it is true, was to some extent compensated by the fairly liberal scale on which continental and more distant buyers came forward; yet the reduced shipments to the East, and the low prices current there, imparted a dull tone to manufacturing circles. The shipments of plain cottons to China have fallen off to a very material extent, and the market is still over-supplied. The encouraging feature, however, is that this over-supply has not been long in attracting attention, and in prompting the taking in of sail. Such a partial arrest of the consignments indicates the prevalence of a healthy if not of a very profitable trade. Speculation, in fact, has sunk to a minimum, and there is no longer any such need to continue glutting the Eastern markets at all and every cost as that which ended in the Colliie collapse, and in the ruin of the City of Glasgow Bank. India has fortunately reached a stage of prosperity unattained at any former period. Our imports of raw cotton and wheat from thence have during the past year been on an almost unparalleled scale. In recent years, moreover, the annual increase in the value of cotton goods and yarns shipped to that country has considerably exceeded our entire trade in those goods with France. Still, of late there had been a disposition to force that market, and one result was the occurrence of some serious failures early in the year among the native traders in Calcutta. Signs have, on the other hand, begun to be manifested that the over-charged condition of the market is being rapidly relieved. Although the removal of the cotton duties in May last was not followed by an improvement in the shipments, that measure served to mitigate the languor that had come over the trade, and its full benefits will

doubtless be felt later on. It may be remarked in connection with the troubles in Egypt, that although our business relations with that country were seriously curtailed during the course of the rebellion, which cast a special gloom over Bolton owing to the diminished receipts of Egyptian cotton, and its consequent enhancement in price, yet the trade with India was little interfered with. Indeed, in July, during which time apprehension in regard to the navigation of the Suez Canal was at its height, a considerable expansion took place in the shipments of linen manufactures to that quarter. Another interesting point has also to be mentioned, namely, the immensely augmented scale on which Brazilian cotton has been shipped to this side. The long staple of that country had for a considerable period been prevented from coming forward with any degree of abundance owing to a low range of prices, but with the outbreak of complications in Egypt this impediment was removed, and there is now every prospect that this new source of supply will attain important dimensions. Much, however, must in the future depend on the fiscal policy of the Brazilian Government. By maintaining her present almost prohibitive tariffs, Brazil necessarily cuts herself off to a large extent from that full business intercourse with this country that would help to foster her various industries and resources. At present there is little sign of a new *régime* being inaugurated; but it is fair to hope that the experience of the last few months, during which there has been a freer interchange of commerce between the two countries, will prepare the way for wise and liberal reforms.

The course of the cotton trade, which has been thus briefly surveyed, may in its broader aspects be taken as typifying the career of other but less important branches of trade. The oscillations in all directions have been incessant. At one moment cheerfulness amounting almost to buoyancy has been manifested, but subsequently a quietude verging on despondency has come over the position, soon to give place again to a feeling of hopefulness, and a renewed forward movement, the main tendency, save in one or two instances, notably in the silk and woollen trades, being towards improvement. Even in the two trades just named, in which complaints have been exceptionally loud and bitter, the volume of business transacted, whether in the home or export branches, has marked a substantial advance on the two preceding years, and fair profits have on the whole been realised. This contradiction between the results of the year's trading and the prevailing sentiment of despondency among those engaged in the several industries it has embraced is explained by the events of

the past few years. When the revival of trade that began in the second half of 1879 had made good progress, the awakening led to the laying down of a considerable amount of fresh capital, which was expected to yield something like the splendid profits made at the great revival that followed the conclusion of the Franco-German War. It was not seen that the conditions at the two periods were in their main points dissimilar, and that the recovery, from the nature of the preceding events, must be slower and more equable. This became apparent after awhile; but instead of tracing the partial check administered to the first outburst of speculation to the true cause, a misgiving arose as to the substantial character of the movement itself. From this misunderstanding of the situation and the forces at work, the transition to a sentiment of distrust of the whole movement and of vague apprehension as to its durability was easy. To a certain extent the doubts thus engendered were seemingly confirmed by the financial collapse in Paris, and the subsequent outbreak of the revolution in Egypt did not tend to modify the views thus formed. The despondent feeling to which business men had grown accustomed in previous years was reawakened, and every symptom of temporary quietude was readily translated into a sign of returning bad times. Caution was, therefore, the order of the day, and as far as possible future commitments were restricted, and a hand-to-mouth business, when possible, alone entered upon. Profits, however, were made, and that, too, of a substantial kind, guarded as were the operations both of manufacturers and merchants, and notwithstanding the feeling of despondency that has prevailed. To the other proofs of the sound and progressive condition of business given in the preceding pages, might be added the smaller record of failures in both the wholesale and retail trades as compared with the preceding year; and the tolerable degree of success that has attended the efforts of the workmen in several leading branches to secure an advance of wages. But perhaps sufficient has already been said to bring out with distinctness the fact that the business activity of the country has been well sustained.

In regard to the course of the London produce markets, the tone as a whole has been such as is commonly described as dull. This dullness, however, has been rather of a speculative than of a legitimate trade character. The general business activity of the country may be good, that is, capital may be turned over with a fair degree of briskness, and yield moderate, even satisfactory, profits both to manufacturers and to retailers concurrently with what is called quietude and waning prices in the "first hand"



markets. Indeed, in the initial stages of a revival of business such as we are now going through, this apparent divergence is of first rate importance, as in the absence of some abnormal event, as, for instance, the close of a great war, leading to an immensely augmented foreign demand for British manufactures of all kinds, that fosters in an unusual way the recovery, the transition from stagnation to activity is pretty certain to encounter an abrupt check. For a time a sudden spurt in the raw produce markets, brought about by the ordinary machinery of speculation, may tempt manufacturers into the market in preparation for a rise in the tide of general business; but unless aided by some new foreign influence, such as the one just mentioned, by the *exploitation* of partially or hitherto wholly undeveloped countries, or by some similar process, the movement is bound to be short-lived, from the very incapacity of consumers, on whom the burden of the revival is made to rest, to adjust themselves to it. People neither increase their consumption of general commodities nor feel disposed to pay more dearly for their sub-necessaries simply because the markets for raw produce and manufactures suddenly take on an appearance of animation and rising prices. The preceding dulness having affected all classes, save those in the receipt of fixed incomes, whose position, if anything, has been made better by the bad times that previously caused a cheapening in all the commodities on which they spend their incomes, the ensuing recovery must have made some substantial progress and reached the masses, improving their incomes and their spending power, before a rise of prices will be either warranted or sustained. The recoil from a condition of speculative inflation is intensified by the fact that the high level to which prices have been carried causes an undue glutting of the markets, produce being hurried forward from all quarters to secure the advantages of this new-born speculative movement, into whose circle is drawn a class of operators having no more acquaintance with the articles in which they have speculatively embarked their money than they have with the method of their production or their ultimate destination. It is enough for them that the "market is rising," and that a purchase of shellac, indigo, wool, tin, or whatever other commodity may be engaging attention, is likely to be "undone" at a substantial profit. It is not a little singular, but not the less true, that this portion of the public, these amateurs in the speculative arena of Mincing Lane, as of other markets, rarely come to the front before the movement may be said to have virtually spent itself, and to have reached a stage at which, unless kept alive by this adventitious aid, a recoil would set in.

Owing to the appearance in the field of this new amateur element, the firmness of the market is maintained beyond its natural term; the more experienced and astute operators are enabled to "unload," that is, to sell and take their profits; and when it is discovered that the experts have practically retired from the field, and left the position to be occupied by the last comers, the breakdown begins, and is accelerated by the counter-speculative sales of those who initiated the preceding rise.

Meanwhile, as we have said, stocks of produce of various kinds have been in course of rapid accumulation; considerable quantities forwarded to the market before the recoil began have yet to arrive, and the hurry to "place" them while there is yet an opportunity of doing so before the final collapse, which the regular dealers see to be inevitable, completes the disorganization. Although the course of speculation since the revival of business began has been more or less marked by incidents of the kind thus briefly sketched, the produce markets have as a whole been subjected in a much less degree to feverish excitement than in previous periods of trade resuscitation. The absence of excitement in the produce markets during the past year has been largely due to the manifest caution with which buyers have operated. This caution has not, it is true, prevented a considerable accumulation of stocks in several directions, which has tended to weaken prices, and lend an air of depression to the markets; but it has not reached a stage from which it could not be quickly drawn back again to animation and briskness by a good harvest, and a spell of political quietude. One exception there has been during the year to this speculative quiescence. In the tin trade the gambling spirit ran high during the greater part of last year, the price of the metal having risen from £87 per ton in the first quarter to £109 10s. at the end of December, and to £115 in the third week of January. At this point a collapse was caused by the occurrence of the Paris crises, the suspension of an important firm, whose previous operations had mainly stimulated the rise, and by the consequent break up of a coterie of smaller firms, who had, however, contracted more or less extensive engagements in the same line. A considerable amount of stock was turned out on the market, and in the space of a week the price fell to £87 10s. The preceding rise having been helped by a vast amount of weak buying, the breakdown was, therefore, the more rapid and complete; but to the fact that stocks had not been allowed to accumulate, owing both to a moderate production and to a tolerably well-sustained consumption, was also due the subsequent quick recovery.

In the tea trade a good deal of disappointment has been

experienced during the year. For some time prior to the bringing forward of the annual Budget the deliveries had shown a marked falling off, owing to a belief that the duties were about to be lightened. This impression was, however, dissipated by Mr. Gladstone when, in answer to a question on the subject, he replied that "the hon. member is probably well enough acquainted with the balance of revenue to form an opinion for himself on the subject." The market continued for some time in a state of considerable depression, and one description, namely, sound Shantams of the new season's import, fell to 4½d. per lb., being the lowest price on record. The deliveries and home consumption continued for some time on a diminished scale, and although the imports were also less than in the previous year, yet stocks accumulated on a large scale. Subsequently, however, the position underwent amelioration in so far as the consumption was concerned, but the latter failing to overtake the receipts, and the re-exports being languid, stocks went on increasing, and prices dragged. Indian tea has fared no better than its China rival in so far as regards price, but in respect of the growth of consumption it has certainly had the advantage. Indeed, the market for the Indian product has during the last eleven or twelve years expanded at an extraordinary rate. According to the last report of the Indian Tea Districts Association, the imports into this country rose from 13,148,168 lbs. in 1870 to 25,605,132 lbs. in 1875, and to 45,765,000 lbs. in 1881, while in the whole period embraced, the deliveries rose from 13,472,800 lbs. to 48,500,000 lbs. Thus, there has been an increase in the consumption of twenty and a half million pounds of Indian tea during the eleven years referred to, while the consumption of China tea in the same period declined about 9,000,000 lbs. The immense strides which India is making in her industrial and commercial pursuits, and the increasing magnitude of the trade relations between England and her great Eastern possession, is one of the most important factors in the economic history of the age. The revival of Indian financial prosperity, as well as the efforts which are being made to curtail expenditure and diminish taxation, have been referred to in a previous chapter.

There is one matter of first-rate importance to the prosperity of our Indian Empire which has not so far approached a successful solution. Since the disorganisation in the silver market, traceable to the change in the monetary standard of Germany from silver to gold, various attempts have been made to correct the mischief thus wrought. The main object of the various Congresses held to discuss the matter was to bring about an understanding among the several Powers concerned for the free

coinage of silver, and the fixing of a ratio in which it should be exchangeable with gold as currency. At the Paris Congress, held in 1881, there seemed some prospect of a satisfactory arrangement being come to. Thus, according to the *proces verbaux* of the proceedings of the Conference issued in February last, the Bank of England notified its willingness to hold silver in the Issue Department on the condition that the mints of other countries returned to such rules as would ensure the certainty of the conversion of gold into silver, and silver into gold. This important concession was, moreover, accompanied by a declaration, made by Lord Hartington, that the Indian Government would, for a definite term of years, undertake not to depart in any direction calculated to lower the value of silver, from the existing practice of coining the metal freely in the Indian mints as legal tender throughout the Indian dominions of Her Majesty. This declaration was, however, made conditional on the acceptance by a number of States of an agreement binding them in some manner or other to open their mints for a similar term to the coinage of silver as full legal tender, in the proportion of  $15\frac{1}{2}$  of silver to 1 of gold. Germany on her part was willing to abstain during a number of years from all sales of silver, and during a subsequent fixed term of years to sell annually an amount of silver so limited as to assure the market against a glut. The circulation of silver was, moreover, to be extended by an eventual withdrawal of gold pieces of five marks,  $27\frac{1}{4}$  millions of marks, as well as Treasury notes of the same value, forty millions of marks, and by the melting down and recoinage, in the ratio of  $15\frac{1}{2}$  of silver to 1 of gold, of 172 million marks of one and five-mark pieces, the existing ratio being 14 to 1. Had these and similar concessions been adopted, progress might have been reported. Unfortunately the Conference, which was adjourned to April of the present year, ultimately dissolved without coming to an agreement. Thus matters stand in their original position, and although of late there have been strong symptoms of reviving interest in the question, as attested by the calling of a Bi-Metallic Conference at Cologne in October of the current year, the time seems still distant when a general agreement will be established. Seeing the great stake this country, with her vast Eastern possessions, having a purely silver currency, has in the matter, it is hardly surprising that a powerful party should have arisen on this side to expound the views of the Bi-Metallists, whose chief concern is the uncertain element which the present position of the silver question introduces into trade relations with India and other countries

similarly situated in regard to the standard of value. What success may attend the efforts of the organisation referred to, namely, the "Association for the Establishment of an International Monetary," remains to be seen. Its object is a laudable one, and certainly deserves a careful consideration from the side of the general public.

Turning to agricultural matters, the year 1882 may be said to have marked a decided departure from the farming experience of the preceding seven years. The period of growth was, however, an anxious and trying one, and evidence was once more afforded that owing to the changed climatic conditions of the country one branch of British agriculture at least, namely, the raising of wheat, is pre-eminently attended with risk, and is almost as great a game of chance as is the cultivation of the hop. The season of planting the winter crops of beans and wheat was in every respect favourable, and as the winter proved unusually mild the appearance of the plant was in each case healthy and vigorous, the only fear in regard to wheat being that there might be too great a growth of straw. The root crops had fared well, and up to March these and the cereals gave much promise. Matters continued to progress to the complete satisfaction of the farming classes up to April, when a check was imposed by the setting in of a long period of east wind, accompanied by some nights of sharp frost that turned the wheat yellow, while towards the end of the month rust began to make its appearance in many quarters. The apprehension thus caused was for the most part dissipated in the following month, which although characterised by the coolness of its nights was nevertheless a period of warm, sunny days, only occasionally broken by a return of east wind that slightly retarded the growth. The last week brought some much-desired rain and mild nights, but during June the weather was cold, boisterous, and wet, there having been little sun and a good deal of cold. Still, up to the beginning of June, the weather had not been abnormal to any very great degree, and apart from the appearance of rust, already referred to, there was no great cause for apprehension in regard to the wheat. The inclemency of the weather at this period, however, exercised an injurious influence on the latter crop, for although the rainfall in respect of quantity was beneficial, the advantage was lost and turned to harm by the lowness of the temperature. The crops put into the ground in the spring necessarily experienced the disadvantages of these conditions, those on the heavy soils having suffered in a peculiar degree the ill effects on the land of the previous absence of frost. Barley and spring corn, in consequence, suffered to a serious extent, and

oats presented a weak, thin appearance. Until the heavy rains of June set in, spring beans had encountered a deficiency of moisture, and peas alone among the spring crops showed to advantage. The effect of the wet, sunless days of June was felt with a degree of severity immeasurably greater in the case of the hay than in any other instance. So far as mere bulk was concerned the crop was unprecedented. The drenching rains, moreover, impeded cutting in many parts of the country up to a very late period of the month, and the crops thus left standing underwent a rapid deterioration from rotting, and where the grass was lying in the swath the wet weather prevented its being carted. Hence, in many instances, farmers prepared themselves for a bitter disappointment, and turned their hopes to the root crops as a source whence some compensation might be drawn. The climatic conditions which up to the end of June prevented, over a great breadth of the country, either the getting in of the hay which had been cut, or the cutting of that which was being withered and spoiled by long standing, were also telling seriously on the wheat, which was now in blossom. The outlook for the latter was reflected in the hardening tendency of prices in Mark Lane and the higher quotations ruling in New York. The reports concerning the condition of barley and oats were no less discouraging, the plant in each case being seen to have come into ear on a short crop of straw. Yet there were two important redeeming features in the agricultural outlook. The weather that had told so seriously on a large portion of the hay, and inflicted so much mischief on the cereals, worked to the benefit of the root and green crops. The condition of pasture grass was magnificent, and the growth enormous, far in excess of the feeding capacity of the live stock generally held.

In July a change occurred that served greatly to dispel the apprehension previously felt regarding the grain crops. The month was warm, and some days of blazing sun came to arrest the damage that until then had been in many quarters regarded as irreparable. It is true that the spring-grown crops, whose development had in the initial stages escaped the forcing to which the earlier-sown plant had been subjected, felt the change in the larger degree; but the earlier plant soon showed signs of improvement that once more held out hope that the average of recent years would after all be exceeded; yet it seemed tolerably certain that over a great part of the country the harvest would be late, and that in some cases the crops would have to remain out until well into September. In this, however, the less sanguine experts were ultimately, in considerable measure, undeceived, owing

to the brilliancy of the earlier weeks of August. During the last week or ten days of that month the weather again became unsettled, occasional heavy downpours of rain having impeded corn-cutting, while some disadvantages were experienced through the coolness of the nights. The rain, on the other hand, was intermittent, and in the intervals of the showers a strong drying wind swept through the crops. Although no appreciable damage was done, harvest work in the backward districts, as in Essex and the eastern counties, was checked; but in the more important parts of the country, in the midland and southern counties, the cereals had been got in in fair condition. Indeed, the low temperature of this last period, together with the occasional drying winds, were of inestimable advantage, as they prevented sprouting, fears of which had previously been widely entertained. Thus, despite the rain and chilly weather of the last fortnight of August, the wheat crop was in stack in the earlier districts, and by the beginning of September a crop exceeding the average of the previous seven years by about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  bushels per acre had been secured and safely housed, and a fair average of spring corn and pulse got in.

As regards the extent of land under various crops, the Agricultural Returns issued by the Board of Trade, and made up to the 5th June last, show that the number of acres under wheat amounted to 3,003,915, being an increase of 178,106 acres, or 7.1 per cent. as compared with 1881, and an increase of 94,477, or 3.2 per cent. as compared with 1880. It should be mentioned that the acreage of 1881 was the smallest on record, the reduction having been, to some extent, due to the exceptionally heavy rains of the preceding autumn. This, moreover, may in a measure be taken to explain the larger breadth of land placed under wheat this year, which has been, on the whole, marked by unusually favourable harvest weather, and has doubtless inspired the farming classes with a hope, that has not been greatly disappointed, that they would be able to retrieve some of the losses of the past. The extent of land under barley, on the other hand, has diminished in a ratio almost corresponding with the expansion in the wheat-sown land, the number of acres being 2,255,139, showing a reduction as compared with last year of 187,195 acres, or 7.7 per cent., and a diminution, as contrasted with 1880, of 212,302, or 8.6 per cent. In how far this decline may be traceable to the change in the malt tax, and the substitution of a duty on beer, it would be impossible to say. That this fiscal reform has had its influence can, perhaps, hardly be contested; but from the fact that the acreage under barley has been steadily on the decline since 1879,

it may be inferred that some other and more powerful cause has been independently at work. The acreage under oats amounted to 2,833,815, being a decrease of 67,460, or 2·3 per cent. as compared with 1881, but an increase of 36,910, or 1·3 per cent., as compared with 1880. A smaller breadth of land was planted with potatoes than in either of the two preceding years, the figures being for 1882, 541,064, for 1881, 579,334, and for 1880, 550,932, the percentage of decrease, as contrasted with the two preceding years, being thus 6·6 per cent. and 1·8 per cent. respectively. For hops, which have this year turned out disastrously, the acreage was returned at 65,676 acres, as compared with 64,943 last year, and with 66,698 in 1880, there being in the one case an increase of 733 acres, or 1·1 per cent., and in the other a reduction of 1,022 acres, or 1·5 per cent. Although, as mentioned above, the wheat crop yielded about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  bushels per acre in excess of the average of the seven previous years, it has to be borne in mind that that average represents the mean of a series of years of more or less seriously defective wheat harvest, representing only  $24\frac{2}{3}$  bushels per acre for England, and  $20\frac{1}{2}$  bushels for Wales as contrasted with a normal average of former years of 28 to 29 bushels. The discrepancies that have arisen in the various estimates put forward regarding the yield of wheat, barley, oats, beans, and peas, are doubtless to be accounted for by this initial divergence, one set of experts taking the old average, and the other the average of the seven years ending 1881. But whichever of the two estimates be taken, the one main fact brought to light is the agreement that exists as to 1882 having been an over-average year for all crops. In respect to wheat, the fact, satisfactory as it is, that the yield has been better than for many previous seasons, is nevertheless of much less importance than it would have been formerly, when the area under wheat was fully 1,000,000 acres more than it now is, when the number of mouths to be supplied was less, and when external sources of supply were not such as they now are. In the first place, the wheat crop forms but a small fraction of the whole agricultural produce of the country. With a yield this year of, say, in round figures, 10,000,000 quarters, an import of at least 15,000,000 quarters of foreign-grown wheat will be necessary; and where the dependence on outside sources is so great, even under circumstances of a yield such as used to be gathered in former years, it is manifest that an undue importance is given to this particular crop. From the point of view of the farmer, a deficient wheat harvest is necessarily an affair of much gravity, but in so far as the whole country is concerned an over or under average crop



is really not the important matter it used to be. A bad wheat harvest here, severely as it affects the home grower, only becomes a serious concern for the consumer when affairs have gone badly on the Continent, or when the great wheat-growing countries, such as America, Australia, Russia, and, more recently, India, have been visited with an unfortunate season. A deficient crop here is rarely made amends for to the farmer by an enhancement in the price of his produce, because the market to which he has to conform is ruled by foreign growers, who work under conditions that more often than not give them an immense superiority and command of the situation. It is difficult, indeed, to understand, in view of recent experience, wherein lies the fascination that irresistibly draws the English farmer to place so large a reliance on this crop. If it turns out badly in respect of bulk, ten to one the shortness of the crop will form so small a percentage of the entire consumptive capacity of the country, the greater part of which has in the best of times to be met out of foreign supplies that are at once forthcoming, that he finds no compensation in a hardening market, while if ruined in quality, as in 1879, he is excluded from the market altogether. The seasons, like most other affairs, are credited with a tendency to move in cycles. Should it happily turn out that the past agricultural year has marked a new departure, and the ensuing years prove an unbroken period of successive good crops, it would still remain doubtful how soon or to what extent the particular losses referred to as having been sustained in the past will be made good out of future wheat crops.

Among the other signs of that poverty that has overtaken the agricultural classes of this country, one having a special significance is afforded by the Board of Trade Returns already alluded to. The number of head of cattle returned for Great Britain to June 5 was 5,807,591, being a decrease of 104,051, or 1·8 per cent., as compared with 1881, and an almost exactly similar decrease as compared with 1880. For sheep the number is set down at 15,571,964, being a reduction of 571,187, or 3·5 per cent., as contrasted with last year, and as much as 1,614,047, or 9·4 per cent., as contrasted with 1880. Lambs, which are returned at 8,746,814, show an increase of 308,912, or 3·7 per cent., over the aggregate of last year, but a diminution of 686,225, or 7·3 per cent., on the figures for 1880. Perhaps no more lamentable picture of the deplorable condition to which British agriculture has been brought in recent years could be afforded than these figures present, especially when the above total of

a little over 15,500,000 of sheep returned for the present year is contrasted with 28,406,000 that were returned for 1878. That this reduction is in part to be traced to the disastrous conditions left behind by 1879 is well enough known, but the readiness with which our farmers have, during the last year or two, parted with their best breeds to foreign buyers, forms also a part of the story of the under-stocking that is not to be ignored, as it tells of the enforced partial abandonment of a branch of agricultural business of the country which is acquiring considerable interest. Nevertheless, this year's returns seem to indicate that a change is in process. The acreage under corn crops has diminished, and although the figures are not available that would justify a positive statement on the point, there are many indications that the reduction has been due to a conversion of land hitherto so cropped into permanent pasture.

## FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### EGYPT, TURKEY, AND THE LEVANT.

**Egypt.**—To Englishmen, and, indeed, to the whole of Europe, the course of events in Egypt, beginning with the insubordination of Arabi Bey down to the present time, when the pacification of Egypt is being effected, has constituted the chief feature of the foreign history of the world for the past year. At the close of September, 1881, the situation in Egypt seemed most unpromising. Arabi Bey and his colleagues of the "National" or Military party, who, by the successful riot of the preceding February, had got the administration of the country into their own hands, were, it is true, apparently mollified for the time by the concessions of the Khedive. They had kissed their sovereign's hands, and had renewed their assurances of fealty, while on October 3rd the disloyal regiments which had been the nominal cause of the rising of September 9th, left Cairo playing the Khedivial hymn. Moreover, the Chamber of Notables had practically told the Military party to mind their own business, which related to the army, and not to the Constitution, that being the care of the Notables, and of them only. But, to those who sought below the surface, the political outlook was eminently discouraging. An army which, by sheer mutiny, had twice carried its demands, could hardly be considered as anything but a disquieting element, more especially when headed by a leader who was fast coming to be looked upon, both at home and abroad, as a man of great ambition, backed by unusual ability, and one who would make his mark for good or for evil in the history of his country. Again, the cry of "Egypt for the Egyptians" was exciting a popular and national agitation, which was spreading far and wide, and threatening the very existence of that European Control which all admitted had done so much towards evolving order out of the chaos that had rendered Egypt bankrupt, and whose administrators, Sir Auckland Colvin and M. de Blignières, were the practical rulers of the country. The *Times* struck the keynote of alarm by the

publication of a leading article reviewing the situation in an alarmist tone, and plainly laying down the principle, which even France could not deny, that, if it came to a crisis, "the interests of all other Powers must yield to those of England." This article, as might be expected, called forth no little criticism abroad, and the general apprehension was not lessened by the sudden despatch of a special Commission to Cairo by the Sultan. This Mission, headed by two prominent Turkish officials, Ali Fuad Bey and Ali Nizami Pasha, was sent ostensibly to inquire into the causes of the military agitation, to investigate the alleged grievances of the Egyptian army, and to afford the Khedive "moral support." In reality, however, there is little doubt that the Sultan took this step in accordance with his determined policy of ever striving to regain his authority over Egypt. He intended by this means to demonstrate to the Mussulman world that he, in Egypt as in Turkey, was the supreme power, and that the Khedive was a mere vassal. Thus, he carefully concealed the despatch of the Mission from the Powers until it had already started, when the Foreign Minister of the Porte, in his explanations to the British and French Ambassadors, endeavoured to minimise the importance of the step, and declared that the object of the Mission was of an eminently conciliatory character. England and France, however, were by no means so easily satisfied, nor were their anxieties allayed by the tone adopted by the Commissioners on reaching Cairo. There the Sultan's delegates were received with all due politeness by the Khedive, while on their side they were equally courteous, and did not fail to censure the soldiery for their insubordination. They were careful to state emphatically that "Egypt was an integral part of the Ottoman Empire." Again, when reprimanding the officers, they did not fail to lay great stress upon the suzerainty of the Sultan. The task of the Mission, however, was cut somewhat short by the firm attitude of England and France, who did not confine their protestations to mere diplomatic declarations of dissatisfaction, but despatched two ironclads to Alexandria as a more material proof of their displeasure. Fruitless, however, as the Mission appeared to be at the time, there is little doubt but that it served to increase the prestige of the Sultan enormously in the eyes of the Egyptian people. It reminded them that beyond the Khedive there was a Suzerain at Constantinople, who was by no means willing to be left out of the question in any future change in Egyptian affairs, while it also greatly encouraged the National party, who discerned in the Sultan an ally against the Khedive, and one who was willing to aid them in their struggle against

the foreign domination, which they declared was preying upon the very vitals of the Egyptians. Arabi Bey, it is true, was absent during the visit of the Turkish delegates, but his influence was none the less felt; and when the Mission returned to Constantinople its members doubtless carried a careful report of the strength and views of the National party, which did much to confirm the determination of the Sultan to assist them, and to fan the agitation against foreign interference in so eminently a Mussulman centre as Egypt. The delegates left Alexandria on October 18, leaving the Khedive as a farewell gift the first class of the Turkish order of merit, Nichani-Imtiaz. On the departure of the commissioners, the English and French ironclads were recalled, and thereupon ensued a brief period of quietude. Only apparent quietude, however, for that there were troubled waters beneath the surface was only too plainly manifest. The Khedive had convened the Assembly of Notables for December 23, and the interim was occupied by the National party in quietly working upon the patriotic and fanatical feelings of their countrymen. They were assisted in this by the bad taste and imprudence of the editor of a French paper, *L'Egypte*, who spoke of Mahomet as a false prophet. At such a time a statement vilifying the founder of the Mahomedan religion was seized upon with eagerness by the Ulemas, who compelled the Government to suppress the paper, and roused such an outcry against its editor that he was forced to leave the country. The Egyptian journals gave vent to the most unmitigated abuse of France and England. One, the *El Moufid*, alluding to the Anglo-French occupation of Egypt hinted at by the *Times*, depicted Egypt as the prey of "two carnivorous lions, England and France," and accused them of hiding their ultimate designs under a knavish policy. Another journal advocated the construction of forts and the purchase of arms for defensive purposes, "in case of need," and told England that Egypt was the sister of Afghanistan and the mother of India; "its numerous and well-armed inhabitants," cried the writer, "must be treated in a more friendly manner than all others; they are gentle, but terrible with the terrible."

Meanwhile England and France had been busily discussing the situation, and Lord Granville on November 4th despatched a diplomatic note to Sir Edward Malet, the British Consul-General, a note which was ostentatiously published in the Egyptian official journal and the French and Arabic press, and which categorically stated that Great Britain was opposed to any interference in Egypt. It affirmed that the British Government's desire was "to maintain Egypt in the enjoyment of the measure of administrative

independence which has been secured by the Sultan's firman. The Government of England," it continued, "would run counter to the most cherished traditions of national history were it to entertain a desire to diminish that liberty, or to tamper with the institutions to which it has given birth." Even, however, as the gist of a lady's letter is said to lie in the postscript, so Lord Granville concluded by the significant warning that any outbreak of anarchy would compel the intervention of England, a threat qualified by an assurance to the Egyptian people that the earnest desire of both England and France, so long as Egypt continued in the path of tranquil and legitimate progress, would be "to contribute towards a satisfactory result." This note had apparently a tranquillising effect, and from that time till the meeting of the Notables on December 23rd, there remains little to be chronicled save a long letter from Sir William Gregory, giving the aims and views of Arabi Bey, with whom Sir William Gregory had had a special interview. The so-called national leader denied that he was favouring any interference on the part of the Sultan in the Government of Egypt; he repudiated the accusation that he was furthering an intolerant Mahomedan reaction, and equally the statement that he was aiming at establishing a Military supremacy, though qualifying this with the announcement that, while the army had no right to arrogate to itself the government of the country, it was obliged to take the lead "in getting rid of abuses and establishing justice." With regard, however, to the question of European officials, while he did not wish to remove the Control, to which he acknowledged "his countrymen were indebted for the justice which the cultivators now enjoy," until Egypt knew how to govern herself and could stand alone, he complained bitterly that the Egyptians were ousted from every superior position in every department. "How would you like to have strangers in all the best places in your various offices?" he asked; "and to have your countrymen excluded from them, and relegated to the lowest." As an example he instanced the Cadastral Survey Department, in which natives bore the heat and dust of the summer day, for which they were paid but little, while European gentlemen sat indoors and received high pay for merely signing their names. He did not believe that England would occupy Egypt, but knew that the latter was ready to defend her independence. Egypt was looked upon as the centre of the Mahomedan world, and in every country where there was a Mussulman community there would be a deep-seated indignation were she to be annexed. He assured Sir William Gregory that he was not speaking his own words and thoughts alone, but those of his countrymen. And

certainly his utterances set forth the chief items of the programme of the National party. A certain colour to his denial of any collusion with the Sultan was given by the reports of the Pan-Islamic propaganda which was being carried on at Constantinople, whence came rumours sometimes of the abdication, and at others of the deposition of the Khedive, and the elevation to the Viceroyalty of his great-uncle, Halim Pasha, or the restoration of the ex-Khedive Ismail. Again the Sultan was credited with a wish to reduce Egypt to the condition of a simple province, ruled by a governor, whose appointment should last for five years at the most. Such a step it was manifest would in no way suit the plans of the National party, whose programme was little less than autonomy, pure and simple. The statements of Arabi to Sir William Gregory were strengthened by a letter to the *Times* from the former, detailing the profession of faith of the National party in Egypt, which differed little in its tenor from Arabi's verbal statements, as above given. The Sultan was acknowledged as Suzerain and Caliph, but all attempts to reduce Egypt to the condition of a Turkish pashalik would be opposed by every possible means. The party trusted in the protecting Powers of Europe, and especially in England, to continue their guarantee of Egypt's administrative independence. The most loyal allegiance to the reigning Khedive was professed, but the party were determined to permit no renewal of that despotic reign of injustice which Egypt had so often witnessed, and to insist upon the execution of his promise to govern with a Council of Deputies. They recognised the European Control as a necessity, and their financial position, and the present continuance of it, as the best guarantee of their prosperity. The great disquieting element in this effusion was the same as in Arabi's conversation with Sir William Gregory, the army. "The National party," he stated, "had confided its interests at the present time to the army, believing it to be the only power in the country able and willing to protect its growing liberties."

On December 26th the Khedive opened his first Parliament of Notables with a speech from the Throne. This speech was only remarkable for being utterly vague and colourless. He declared that, ever since his accession, he had been desirous of summoning an Assembly of Notables, but hitherto had not found it feasible. Now, however, that the financial situation of the country had been regulated, with the aid of the friendly Powers, he was enabled to carry out his wish. It was the duty of the Assembly to devote its attention to the general interests of the country, taking into account the obligations resulting from the law of liquidation and all other international treaties. The

Khedive expressed his conviction that the Assembly would never fail to show that spirit of wise moderation which was absolutely necessary in a period of civilisation, transformation, and progress. "Gentlemen," he concluded, "you must always be prudent, and together we shall be closely united to accomplish useful reforms in Egypt, aided by the grace of God, His Prophet, and the powerful support of His Majesty the Sultan, our august sovereign." Upon the native mind, and upon that of the Notables, these utterances produced a tranquillising effect; and Cherif Pasha, the Premier, when addressing the Chamber upon the necessity of observing the international obligations of the country, was warmly applauded by the deputies.

England and France, however, as we have said, had been taking grave counsel together respecting the condition of a country in which both nations had a high interest. M. Gambetta, who had but recently assumed the reins of Government, was anxious for a determined, and even warlike policy. Lord Granville, while fully recognising the immense importance of maintaining the *status quo* in Egypt, and of preserving that country from all the perils which a revolutionary party might threaten, was by no means so ready to take decisive action. However, at the instance of the French Premier, it was decided, in view of the unsettled state of Egypt, the tendency of the Notables to over-ride the Khedive and his Ministry with regard to the budget, and the preponderance which the Military party and Arabi Bey—who, by the way, had just been appointed Under Secretary for War—continued to maintain in Egypt, that a joint note from England and France should be despatched to the Khedive. This note, which startled the whole of Europe by its very decisive language, categorically declared to the Khedive that "the British and French Governments consider the maintenance of His Highness on the throne, on the terms sanctioned by successive firmans of the Porte, and which they have officially accepted, as being at present, and in the future, the only possible guarantee for the maintenance of order and the development of the general prosperity of the country, in which England and France are equally interested. England and France had no doubt," concluded the note, "that the publicly expressed assurance of their formal intention in this respect would contribute to prevent dangers which the Khedive's Government might have to dread, which dangers, moreover, would certainly find England and France united to face them." This very peremptory language caused the greatest possible irritation and alarm in Egypt, where the Notables and National party alike looked upon the



note as a determination on the part of the two Powers to crush all their efforts at independence, and to uphold the Khedive and the arbitrary authority of the old régime. Nor was the Sultan any the better pleased at this action on the part of the Western Powers, which he regarded as a warning of "hands off," and a hint that he must not push his Panislamic policy in the direction of the country on which he had so manifestly set his heart. The European Powers also were equally startled. The susceptibilities of Austria and Italy were aroused by the indication that England and France were prepared to take decisive action on the banks of the Nile, and both began to exclaim against the inauguration of another Tunisian policy. Germany, moreover, jealous as ever of any step which might be taken by France to increase her power and prestige, plainly showed her dissatisfaction, while Russia, as is her wont, when England displays any unusual energy in the direction of the East, gave vent to an outburst of hysterical protests. Meanwhile, the Assembly of Notables paid little heed to the warning addressed to them. They set themselves steadily to work to discuss the possibility of voting a semi-western constitution for Egypt. They wrangled with the Ministry on the question of Ministerial responsibility to the Chamber, a claim which the Cabinet naturally opposed, they demanded the right of voting the Budget, a step manifestly aimed at the foreign Controllers General, and further claimed the privilege of initiative in all laws. The English and French Controllers General, however, were jointly instructed by their Governments to make no concessions whatever, and to maintain a firm attitude. The Sultan protested in a note that nothing had happened to justify the language of the Western Powers, and harping on his old theme, affirmed that "Egypt was an integral part of the possessions of the Sultan." He declared, consequently, that the opinion of the sovereign Power should have been obtained previous to the step taken by England and France, and that the communication should have been made through that channel alone. He characterised as an "imperious necessity" that explanations and assurances should be given "which might relieve the Imperial Government from the difficult situation in which it found itself in consequence of what had taken place at Cairo." Thus a serious conflict was threatened between, on one side the Chamber, the National party, and the Sultan, and on the other the Khedive, his Ministry, and England and France as represented by the Controllers General. Cherif Pasha, it is true, threw a sop to the Deputies in the form of a sum of £100,000 for an increase of the army, but this was by no means sufficient for the Notables, who

held to their old point of demanding the right of discussing and voting the whole Budget, and thus depriving Sir Auckland Colvin and M. de Blignières of the financial control with which they were entrusted in 1879 by the mandate of England and France, counter-signed by a decree of the Khedive. To this the English and French Consuls General retorted by a declaration to Cherif Pasha that since the existing régime was the result of an agreement between England and France, no change could be introduced without the consent of the contracting parties. Thereupon ensued a deadlock between Parliament and the Cabinet, and although various compromises were proposed and discussed, no practical solution could be found to the difficulty. Finally the Deputies requested Cherif Pasha to sign their draft of the Organic law; but the Premier referred them to the Khedive, and immediately resigned, and on February 2nd a Ministry more in accordance with the sentiments of the Parliament and Military party was formed under the presidency of Mahmoud Pasha Baroudi, Mustapha Pasha Fehmy being Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ali Sadek Pasha, Minister of Finance, Arabi Bey, Minister of War, Mahmoud Bey Fehmi, Minister of Public Works, Abdallah Feyri Pasha, Minister of Public Instruction, and Hassan Cherei Pasha, Minister of Works. The Khedive at first had refused to form a new Cabinet, declaring that he would wait until the Chamber submitted a list. With this request the Chamber ultimately complied so far as nominating Mahmoud Pasha Baroudi as Premier. There is little doubt that the Military party throughout used the strongest pressure to compel the Chamber to pursue this policy, and it is said that in an interview with the President, Arabi Bey pointed to his sword and used threatening language with regard to what the Chamber might expect did it fail to comply with the programme laid down by the new Mamelukes. The first act of the Premier was to visit Sir Edward Malet, and assure him that the new Government would respect all international obligations; the second was to issue a programme in the form of a letter to the Khedive repeating the above assurance, but announcing that an Organic law would be the first measure of the Ministry; which measure would determine the limits of Ministerial responsibility and Parliamentary procedure. A few days before all this a change of Ministry had occurred in France, and the new French Cabinet showed unmistakable signs of modifying the warlike policy of M. Gambetta, who had plainly urged upon England the desirability of active intervention in the event of Egypt relapsing into a condition of anarchy. M. de Freycinet, the new French Premier, showed signs of a far more peaceable disposition, fathered a

Havas note taking an optimist view of the situation, and this doubtless encouraged the Nationalist party in their hostile attitude to the Khedive and the Powers. Yet the revolutionary attitude assumed by the Chamber, and the fact that Arabi Bey was the real Premier, and consequent ruler of Egypt, created a feeling of alarm amongst the European Powers, which even outweighed their jealousy of England and France. Indeed, two separate notes from the English and French Governments simultaneously addressed to the four Powers—Germany, Russia, Austria, and Italy—with the purpose of explaining the joint note presented to the Khedive, and expressing a desire that some understanding should be come to with regard to Egypt on the basis of the maintenance of the *status quo* and respect for international engagements, were favourably received, more particularly as the notes contained a suggestion that if necessary England and France would submit the question to the consideration of a European Conference. Even the Sultan felt that the Egyptian Notables had gone too far, and despatched instructions to the Khedive “to observe international treaties, and maintain order,” taking care ostentatiously to inform the Powers of this step, being evidently anxious to maintain some appearance at least of sovereignty in view of future contingencies. In Egypt itself the Anglo-French Controllers continued to protest against the Ministerial programme, while Arabi Bey manifestly grew more and more in popular favour. He is noted to have ruled over the Cabinet with even more authority than is claimed by Prince Bismarck. “He does not argue, but orders,” declared a contemporary writer, “and his word is law. He recently paid a visit to the President, but was accompanied by 400 officers, a double line of guards being necessary to keep off the petitioners. The people treat him with superstitious respect; some hold him to be a direct descendant of the Prophet, others treat him as one inspired.” It was only to be expected from the complete triumph of the Military party that the Egyptian Chamber should show itself more than ever subservient to the Cabinet—a subserviency which called forth a vigorous protest from the Anglo-French Controllers against the existing Military dictatorship. Despite the protest against the proposed Organic law—endowing the Ministers and Parliament with the right of voting the Budget—from the British and French Consuls, and from the Controllers, whose functions would thus be limited to mere superintendence of the public debt, the Notables and Cabinet continued to discuss the measures in question. The Controllers then issued a public protest to their Governments de-

claring that when they were appointed the Khedive was not merely the nominal but the actual ruler of the country. Formerly the advice of the Controllers received "just appreciation;" now, however, notwithstanding their formal opposition, the Ministry had decided to give the Chamber the right of voting the Budget. To accept such an accomplished fact, therefore, was "to accept the most serious outrage which had been committed against the interests of England and France; positively to annihilate the influence of the Controllers, who had no authority but that which they derived from their Governments. It would be a profound illusion not to see in this the prelude of a series of measures which would not leave standing any of the reforms introduced in the course of late years." No apparent notice was taken of this note, but the *pourparlers* between England and France and the other Powers, with regard to some mode of intervention, continued, while an Anglo-French note was presented to the Sultan declaring that France and England had not interfered with the sovereignty of the Sultan over Egypt, but that the recent events in that country had threatened those international arrangements in which not only England and France were interested, but to which the other Powers of Europe had also become parties. This condition of things lasted for some weeks, until at last, on March 12th, the French Controller General resigned his post, after having, in conjunction with his colleague, issued the annual report of the Control. By this a surplus was shown over the expenditure of 1880-1 of £600,000, thus evidencing the good work which the Controllers had effected during their term of office. The report, however, declared that the proposed Budget for 1882 imperilled the liquidation scheme by exceeding the allowance fixed by the committee of liquidation, and increasing the military expenditure by nearly one-half. Moreover, the military disturbances had arrested the execution of reforms of provincial administration, and other prospects of improvements. All seemed quiet at Cairo, however, and the Khedive and the Military party now appeared on the best of terms; numerous promotions were made, Arabi, and some half-dozen of his colleagues, being raised to the grade of Brigadier-General, and the rank of Pasha. Nearly 300 minor officers were also promoted, while the whole Egyptian press joined in one chorus of complaint against the European officials. At the latter end of March the Prime Minister prorogued the Chamber, and addressed a letter to the Khedive protesting against the statement of the Controllers, declaring that the intention was loyally to maintain the institution created with a view of assuring the service of the con-

solidated debt, and that there was no reason to apprehend that any effect resulting from the new régime would tend to embarrass the action of the Control or injure the guarantee of the Egyptian bondholders.

On April 11 a new change came over the scene. A conspiracy, it was asserted, had been discovered to assassinate Arabi Pasha, the culprits being thirty-one Circassian officers, who had been left out in the cold by that magnate in his recommendations to the Khedive for promotion. These officers were tried by a court-martial, sitting in secret; but it is stated that Arabi Pasha was most urgent that a stringent example should be made of the prisoners, some of whom, he declared, he would have shot in the presence of the army. The trial, however, was postponed for some weeks; but, in the meantime, all was unrest and uneasiness in Egypt. Numerous European officials were summarily dismissed, without any reason being assigned, and Arabi, now bolder, assumed the tone of a military dictator, and carried on his Nationalist policy with a higher hand than ever. All contractors were ordered to correspond in Arabic, existing contracts were refused; while as to threatened actions at law, he bluntly declared his intention of disregarding judgments which he should not consider equitable. At the end of April the court-martial concluded its labours, found the prisoners guilty, and condemned them to degradation and exile, the finding of the court declaring that the plot had been instigated by Ismail Pasha, who had sent Rahib Pasha to Egypt for this purpose, and stating that consequently the Khedive and Council of Ministers would be recommended to discontinue the ex-Khedive's civil list. Tewfik Pasha, however, now brought to bay, flatly refused to confirm this sentence, which he commuted into simple exile. Then began a struggle between the Khedive and the Cabinet, from which the gravest results were to ensue.

The Cabinet and Military party at first attempted a compromise, but the Khedive held firm to his determination to commute the sentences on the prisoners; and, on May 9th, summoning the foreign Consuls, he complained that Mahmoud Baroudi had not only insisted upon the sentences being carried out, but had used insulting language regarding the foreign Consuls and the foreign residents generally. Thereupon the Consuls proceeded to interview Mahmoud Baroudi, but with no effect. The Ministry, urged on by the Nationalist party, had determined to bring matters to a crisis, and summoned the Chamber of Notables with the scarcely-concealed purpose of procuring the proclamation of the Khedive's deposition over his head, in defiance of the Organic law. At the

same time, they gave the most solemn assurances to the Consuls that the person of the Khedive would be held sacred, and that no danger threatened either the lives or property of the European residents. Nevertheless, they did not hesitate to declare that in the event of any intervention even by Turkey, they would not fail to defend their country.

Nor, must it be said, was Turkish intervention popular with the majority of the European powers. France, in particular, definitely set her face against any such idea, and Count Hatzfeldt told the Ottoman Ambassador at Berlin, not only that Turkish intervention might lead to complications, but that he recommended the Sultan in the first place to come to an understanding with England and France, and to follow their advice. The Sultan, careful as ever to maintain his show of suzerainty over Egypt, had already sent a note to the Khedive directing him to pardon the officers, and requesting that the proceedings of the court-martial should be communicated to the Porte, a request which was not complied with, as the Khedive considered that it was contrary to the prerogatives bestowed on him by the Porte. The breach between the Khedive and his Cabinet was quickly followed on May 11th by the breaking off of relations between the British Controller-General and his new French colleague, M. de Brédif, and the Egyptian Ministers. There is little doubt that the Cabinet thought the jealousies of the European Powers would prevent any foreign intervention in Egyptian affairs; and that, consequently, with the army at their back, they would gain a comparatively easy victory over the Khedive. As once before, however, the Military party had overestimated the subserviency of the Chamber of Notables, for the Deputies refused to meet unless legally convoked. The determination of England and France also to prevent Egypt relapsing into a complete state of anarchy had been equally underrated; for these two Powers, after much confabulation, finally determined to despatch ironclads to Alexandria in order to show Arabi Pasha that their protests were not to be confined to mere words. Meanwhile, continual negotiations had been taking place between the Khedive and the revolutionary Ministry. Mahmoud Pasha Baroudi had offered to resign, but the Khedive could not find a fit successor to the Premiership. Sultan Pasha and a committee of Notables vainly endeavoured to bring about a reconciliation, but they were met by the Khedive with a trite assertion that he would not treat with rebels. In this attitude the Khedive was supported by the English and French Consuls, who, nevertheless, recognised the danger of the situation, visited Arabi Pasha, and told him plainly that they should hold him responsible for the safety of

European residents in Egypt. The *entente* between England and France had been strengthened by the declarations of M. de Freycinet in the French Chamber that no interference with the freedom and independence of Egypt would be tolerated; that her independence would be maintained, thanks to the friendly understanding which existed between the Cabinets of London and of Paris; and that there was a unanimous agreement amongst the great Powers of Europe that Anglo-French influence must maintain its preponderance in the Egyptian question. Indeed, there was a sort of tacit understanding amongst the Powers that England and France had the greatest stake in Egypt, and that while all Europe should have a word to say in the final settlement of the question, the two Western Powers should be permitted to take the initiative in restoring the country to a state of order and tranquillity. As we have said, a complete agreement had been come to between Earl Granville and M. de Freycinet, the chief stumbling-block being that England was willing to permit the intervention of Turkey, while France decidedly opposed it. Finally, however, as generally happens in such cases, a compromise was effected. In a joint note presented to the Porte by the English and French Ambassadors, in which they announced the despatch of a combined squadron to Alexandria, the Sultan was recommended to abstain from all interference, but was told that, under certain eventualities, "other propositions" might be made. As might be imagined, Turkey was furious at this step of the Western Powers. The Sultan saw his scheme of regaining possession of Egypt vanish into thin air, and his much-boasted suzerainty calmly set at naught. A note protesting against the naval demonstration was at once wired to all the Powers in Europe. This document, while in no way contesting the right of France and England to insist upon the protection of their subjects' interests, declared that they ought not to take that protection into their own hands by sending squadrons to the waters of a country belonging to the Sultan. This protest did not produce the slightest effect, as, on May 19, H.M.S. *Bittern* entered the harbour of Alexandria, and on the next day a combined fleet of English and French war vessels, under the respective commands of Vice-Admiral Sir F. Beauchamp Seymour and Rear-Admiral Conrad, took up their quarters before the town. Meanwhile the Khedive, at the instance of the Consuls, who were apprehensive of some forcible outbreak on the part of Arabi before the arrival of the fleet, had effected a temporary reconciliation with the Cabinet, Mahmoud Sami Pasha becoming the Premier. The Ministers, as before, hastened to make their

accustomed professions of loyalty and devotion, Arabi kissing his sovereign's feet and hands, despite the attitude of frigid courtesy which the Khedive preserved. Nevertheless, the pretended reconciliation, though giving rise to numerous optimist telegrams, really deceived no one. Amongst the European community in the Egyptian capital there was naturally considerable panic, and a general exodus of women and children from Cairo commenced. At length, after some informal but fruitless negotiations between the French Consul and the Ministry, the diplomatic agents of England and France delivered an ultimatum to the Egyptian Premier, Mahmoud Pasha Sami. The document demanded, "as the only means of putting an end to the disturbed state of the country," first, the temporary removal from Egypt of Arabi Pasha with the retention of his rank and pay; secondly, the despatch of Ali Fehmy and Abdellal Pashas into the interior of Egypt, equally with the retention of their rank and pay; thirdly, the resignation of the present Ministry; "whereas," continued the Consuls, "these conditions, through the conciliatory spirit which had dictated them, could prevent the irreparable misfortune which menaced Europe, they, acting in the name and authorised by their respective Governments, recommended them to the most serious attention of the President of the Ministry and his colleagues, and, in case of necessity, they would exact their due fulfilment." In intervening, the Consuls stated that they had no other object than the maintenance of the *status quo*, and consequently the restitution to the Khedive of that authority which belonged to him, and without which the *status quo* was necessarily menaced. To these demands the Ministry replied by a note to the Khedive, stating that they had prepared an answer to the demands of England and France, referring those Powers for an answer to the Porte, under whose sovereignty Egypt is placed; but that on learning that he had accepted the terms of the ultimatum, contrary to the unanimous advice of the Ministers, the Cabinet tendered their resignation, regarding such an admission of the intervention of Foreign Powers as an infringement of the rights of the Sultan. The Khedive at once accepted their resignation, and signalled the recovery of his independence by issuing a proclamation to the provincial authorities enjoining them to maintain public security, and declaring that as the British and French squadrons had come to Egypt with a friendly object, all recruiting and assembling of the reserves should be suspended. His next step was to summon all the great dignitaries of State, the Ulemas, the Notables, and the principal Military officers, and to address them with considerable energy, explaining the object of the naval expedition, and announcing that



he himself had taken the personal command of the army. Contrary, however, to his expectation, his assertions were received with the utmost insolence. The military leaders loudly declared that they would never accept the Anglo-French ultimatum, nor recognise the right of interference of any Power save Turkey; then, turning their back upon the Khedive, they trooped off to the house of Mahmoud Sami, where they held a meeting on their own account. There even more violent language was used, and it was decided that the Khedive should be requested to retain Arabi Pasha as Minister of War in the new Cabinet which Cherif Pasha was endeavouring to form. The garrison at Alexandria also telegraphed that they would not be answerable for the maintenance of order unless Arabi Pasha were restored; but the Khedive nevertheless continued firm, relying upon a congratulatory telegram from the Porte praising his policy and his acceptance of the resignation of the Ministry. Next day, however, May 28, Arabi, determined not to be beaten, sent a message to the chief merchants and to the Ulemas, coolly informing them that unless they procured his reinstatement their lives would not be safe. This, combined with the threatening attitude of the army, produced its due effect, and at five o'clock in the evening the Ulemas, the whole Chamber of Deputies, numerous Arabic notabilities, a deputation from the schools, and a body of native merchants, went to the Palace, and implored the Khedive to save their lives, which were menaced by the army, the Ulemas plainly hinting that on a refusal they would be compelled to sign a *fetvah* proclaiming his deposition. Thus urged, the Khedive once more yielded, and Arabi Pasha was duly re-appointed Minister of War. That the Khedive was induced to give way simply through the fear of a revolutionary outbreak is not to be doubted. Excusing himself to the *Times* correspondent, he declared that he had endangered the lives of himself and his family out of loyalty to France and England; "but," he continued, "when the life of every prominent subject I possess is at stake, am I to sacrifice them too?"

The untoward course which affairs had taken and the threats of Arabi Pasha increased the panic which reigned amongst the Europeans in Cairo and Alexandria. The vessels leaving the latter town were crowded to excess with passengers, while in the interior the banks suspended all operations, and sent away their specie and valuables to a safer country. Nor were their fears unjustifiable; for it became clearly manifest that forcible intervention on the part of the Western Powers was imminent, and although England and France, at the suggestion of the latter, had asked the great Powers to

meet in conference on the Egyptian question at Constantinople, it was felt that the slightest incident would serve to bring about a revolutionary rising and a general massacre of the Europeans. While the Powers were thinking over the proposition for a Conference, the Sultan made a final effort to assert his authority by despatching a Turkish Mission of Inquiry, under Dervish Pasha. Dervish Pasha left Constantinople on the shortest possible notice, arrived at Alexandria on June 7th, and the next day he at once proceeded to Cairo, where he was received at the station by some officials of the Khedive's household, and escorted to the Khedive's palace by a crowd of donkey-boys, and soldiers disguised as labourers, all shouting "*Deen el Islam!*" In the same carriage rode Yakoob Bey Sami, the Sub-Minister of War, who represented Arabi, despite the orders of the Khedive that he was not to be presented to the Turkish Commissioner, and certainly not to accompany him, even in the same train. After giving audience to the Consuls, Dervish Pasha set to work with a high hand to procure a settlement of the crisis. He laid great stress on the fact that he was no diplomatist, but a soldier, and, in his interview with some of the ex-Ministers, he made casual reference to the massacre of the Mamelukes. Such was the situation of affairs when, on Sunday, June 11th, a formidable rising of Mahometans broke out at Alexandria, and resulted in a terrible massacre of Europeans. For some weeks past the attitude of the natives, and of the soldiers in particular, had been most threatening towards the European community, and, as a species of defiant reply to the naval demonstration of France and England, the military authorities had been working hard at the defences of Alexandria, erecting earthworks, and putting the forts in a position to resist any forcible attack from the sea. On the other hand, the British fleet had been greatly strengthened by the arrival of ironclads from Suda Bay; but the presence of the allied squadrons had no effect in overawing the Egyptians, but, on the contrary, seemed rather to increase their arrogance and hostility. Arabi and the military party manifestly did not believe that France and England were in any way prepared to do more than make a display of force, thinking, as they had thought all along, that the fear of exciting international jealousies would effectually prevent the Western Powers proceeding from words to deeds. The true history of the rising of June 11th has yet to be told, but there is little doubt but that it had been carefully planned and organised beforehand. The ostensible beginning was a conflict between a Maltese and an Arab, which resulted in the countrymen of both combatants coming to the rescue, and

thereby causing a general rising of the Mahometans. This, however, does not account for the fact that there were several risings in different quarters at one and the same time, as though instigated by some preconcerted signal. Moreover, all the rioters were armed with a particular species of bludgeon, with which the Arabs paraded the streets, striking at every European whom they met. The chief point of attack was the Great Square, where the principal hotels, banks, shops, houses of business, and cafés, were situated, and there the mob entered and pillaged the buildings, beating down every European who came in their way. For three hours the Square and the adjoining streets were given up completely to the rioters, the police being powerless, and no troops coming up to restore order. At length a regiment was marched to the Square, and dispersed the rioters. Mr. Cookson, the British Consul, was attacked by the mob, and wounded, while the number of killed was estimated at over 100, of whom 48 were Europeans. An eye-witness of the massacre, recounting the terrible scene, stated that the heads of the Europeans were in many cases beaten to pulp, while other victims were subjected to the most revolting outrages. The bodies of the dead were plundered, and stripped of their clothing. Amongst the victims, an engineer of the British fleet and two admiral's servants were killed, while a surgeon of H.M.S. *Superb* and a steward of H.M.S. *Monarch* were wounded. The conduct of the Europeans, and of the ladies in particular in the hotels, has been highly praised as in every way cool and courageous throughout. The military police, or as they were called the mustafizeen, instead of protecting the Europeans, appear in many cases to have joined in the rioting, and numerous cases of fugitive Christians being shot through the head by sentries are recorded. The news of the Alexandrian outrages created great excitement at Cairo. The Khedive at once expressed his regret to the Consuls-General, and Arabi Pasha despatched 2,000 troops to Alexandria to restore order. Curiously enough, on the same day, Dervish Pasha had snubbed both Arabi and the Ulemas, by scarcely noticing the former when he called, and by plainly telling the latter, who insisted that the foreign ships should be ordered out of Egyptian waters, that he had come to give orders, not to receive advice. So sure, apparently, was the Turkish Commissioner of overawing the military party, and of restoring the authority of the Khedive, that he told the representatives of the European press that in a day or two they would be able to telegraph home that all was finished. How he was mistaken we have seen, and on June 12th, when the Consul-General requested him to inform them whom they were to hold

responsible for the lives and safety of the European residents, he did not retain sufficient presence of mind to return a direct answer. Moreover, later in the day, when the Consuls-General were summoned to the Ismailia Palace, they found that Dervish had joined himself with Arabi Pasha for the preservation of order, the latter faithfully undertaking to execute all the orders of the Khedive, and to put a stop to the preachings in the mosques, and to tone down the ravings of the native press. Both Dervish Pasha and the Khedive appeared to have communicated by telegraph with the Sultan, and it was stated that by his order they, on June 13th, left Cairo for Alexandria. There a complete panic reigned throughout the European quarters. A stampede had been made to the ships in the harbour, which were crammed almost to suffocation with refugees who during a few days are estimated to have numbered from 30,000 to 50,000 persons. Their departure created a new danger, for as they were all employers of labour, many thousands of natives were thus thrown out of work. All the shops were closed, business was suspended, and the Europeans who ventured to show themselves in the streets were jostled and insulted, even by the donkey-boys. The position of Europeans, and especially of the English and French, had become intolerable, from the extreme contempt and insults with which they were treated. A soldier snatched a hat from the head of an Englishman, inquiring if he were not ashamed to wear it after what had passed. Our countrymen were asked whether Arabi Pasha had guaranteed the safety of the fleet; and did one dispute with a donkey-boy he would threaten to treat him as Arabi treated the English sailors—who it was declared were held prisoners on board. On his arrival, the Khedive exerted himself to the utmost to restore at least a semblance of order. He ordered the reopening of the cafés, drove about in an open carriage unattended, and ordered the military band to play in the Great Square, as though that great European resort still teemed with pleasure-seeking tourists. Nevertheless, all his efforts were useless; some 250 of the rioters were arrested, the streets were carefully patrolled by soldiers, but it needed not the official warning of the Consuls to induce every European who could possibly get on board a vessel to leave the shore. The departure of the Khedive and Dervish Pasha from Cairo was succeeded by that of the Consuls-General, and the seat of Government was transferred for the nonce to Alexandria.

The effect of the Alexandrian massacres upon the Powers was to create a universal impression that Dervish's mission had utterly failed, and that the Anglo-French proposition for a Conference

must be seriously taken into consideration. In every parliament in Europe the various Ministers were interpellated, and, while acknowledging the serious nature of the situation, their answers were as characteristically vague and diplomatic as such utterances are wont to be on occasions of emergency. The Sultan, for once startled out of his complacency, was half-inclined to agree to the meeting of the Conference which he had previously opposed as unnecessary; he expressed his most profound regret to Lord Dufferin for the massacres, and held continual conferences with his Ministers on the situation. To return to Alexandria, in addition to the maintenance of order, the efforts of Dervish Pasha and the Khedive were directed towards the formation of a new Ministry. A Cabinet was ultimately formed under Raghib Pasha, of course with Arabi Pasha as Minister of War, the other members of the Cabinet, Abdel Rahman Pasha Ruchdi (Finance), Ahmed Rashid Pasha (Interior), Mahmoud Falaki Pasha (Public Works), Ali Ibrahim Pasha (Justice), Hassan Pasha Cherei (Religion), and Suleiman Pasha Abaza (Public Instruction), were ex-Ministers, and mere weak puppets in the hands of Arabi. Raghib Pasha, as usual, inaugurated his rule with a programme promising faithfully to respect all obligations and engagements arising from imperial firmans, from financial guarantees, and from the institutions of the Control, and then proceeded to announce new laws determining the rights and duties of the Government and governed of all classes, and the extent and distribution of administrative and judicial powers, while giving to these reforms a national character in conformity with the needs of the country. First among the measures was a general amnesty to all compromised in recent events, "with the exception of the authors and accomplices in the regrettable Alexandria disorders." No one, however, was to be punished "except by sentence pronounced by a competent tribunal, and by an application of a rule of law." Next, the Ministry enunciated a rule confining all intercourse with the diplomatic agents of the Powers to the Foreign Minister, the action of any other functionary to be considered of none effect. In conclusion, the spirit and letter of the Khedivial decree of 1878, by which the Khedive promised to govern by and with his Ministers, was to be rigorously observed. Meanwhile the Ministry, as an earnest of their intention to restore order, constituted a special tribunal composed of nine natives, and the same number of Europeans, to try those prisoners who had been arrested in connection with the Alexandrian disturbances, presided over by the Minister of Finance. No fair words or promises, however, could restore confidence; Alexandria

rapidly became a semi-deserted city, the shops remaining closed, and such banks as had not suspended business being strongly barricaded and guarded. The European exodus continued, nor was the panic in any way stayed by the remarkable action of the Sultan, who sent Arabi Pacha the Grand Cordon of the Medjidie, with a cordial message of thanks for his behaviour during the crisis.

This extraordinary step was manifestly intended as a rebuff to the Powers, whose Ambassadors were then sitting in Conference at Constantinople. The Porte had categorically declined to join in the Conference, stating, in yet another circular note to the six Powers, that as the Egyptian army had made an unqualified declaration of loyalty to the Sultan, and of future obedience to the Khedive, while the new Ministry had declared that the *status quo*, including international engagements, would be strictly upheld, the crisis might therefore be considered as terminated. Consequently, hoped the Sultan, the Powers would understand that there was no necessity for the Conference. The Powers, however, had understood no such thing; on the contrary, it was manifest, after the massacre of June 11th, that the Conference must be held, and that speedily. On June 23rd, at the Italian Embassy at Therapia, the first meeting of the Ambassadors of England, France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and Italy, was duly held. The proceedings were commenced by each Ambassador signing a *protocole de désintéressement*, and their subsequent efforts were chiefly directed towards inducing the Sultan to take part in the deliberations. The Sultan was considerably embarrassed by the position of affairs. On the one hand he feared to risk his Caliphate by opposing a Mahometan national and religious movement, and giving his countenance and aid to the opposing infidel; on the other hand, he knew that any definite rupture with the European Powers meant not only financial ruin, but possibly the dismemberment of what remained of his Empire, and at all events forcible intervention by European troops in Egypt. Already it had been threatened that upon his refusal a collective force of English, French, German, and Italian troops would be sent to Alexandria to restore order, even if the intervention of an English army alone were not sanctioned. Under the circumstances, he pursued the inevitable policy of the modern Ottoman when in a dilemma: he procrastinated, and strove to gain time by offering to take part in the Conference under manifestly unacceptable conditions. Finally, on July 11, an event happened which relieved him of the difficulty; this event was the bombardment of Alexandria.

Ever since the Sultan had so definitively shown his sym-

pathy with Arabi Pasha, the attitude of that chieftain and of the National party had become more and more uncompromising towards England and France, and more threatening towards the joint fleets. Notwithstanding the orders from the Porte, promulgated and signed by the Khedive, that the works on the Alexandrian forts should be suspended, they were vigorously continued both by night and by day. Moreover, disquieting rumours arose that the Suez Canal was to be seized and held by the Egyptian troops as a species of hostage for the good behaviour of the Powers. M. de Lesseps wrote an imploring letter to the Egyptian Government, which was answered in a vague unsatisfactory way by Raghib Pasha, who declared that the Government acknowledged that it was its duty to maintain the tranquillity of the country in general, and of the Canal in particular. Meanwhile, all the Powers had sent ironclads to protect their subjects at Alexandria, the British squadron was constantly reinforced, until at the beginning of July there were 32 foreign war vessels in Alexandria harbour, 14 of which were English and 6 French, and the British Government was openly preparing for an army of occupation both at home and in India. On his side Arabi was striving to obtain a *levée en masse* of the population, and worked more energetically than ever at the defences of Alexandria. He now, however, affected to obey the Sultan's order by suspending all work during the daytime, but redoubled his exertions secretly by night. That this was the fact was quickly discovered by Admiral Seymour, who ordered the *Alexandra* to display a powerful electric light from her mast-head, which plainly disclosed the bad faith of the Egyptians. Upon this, the Admiral once more protested to the Khedive's Government; but little attention, however, was paid to this remonstrance. Admiral Seymour, however, and the British Government, were now really in earnest, and on July 6th the British admiral sent an ultimatum to the Egyptian Government, demanding the immediate discontinuance of the defensive works, threatening a bombardment in the event of a refusal. To this Arabi Pasha replied by denying that there were any new works, while the Consuls-General of the five great Powers sent a joint letter to the admiral, pointing out that a bombardment of Alexandria could not be effected without causing great danger to the Christian population, and the destruction of an incalculable amount of European property. Admiral Seymour answered this by recommending the Consuls to use their influence with the military commandant to induce him to act with sincerity, and to stop the continuance of the fortification works. He pointed out that he had not expressed any intention of bom-

barding the town of Alexandria; any operations, if rendered necessary, would be directed against the fortifications. Arabi now appears to have boldly thrown off the mask, and soldiers could be seen busily working in the forts. On the evening of Sunday, July 9th, the British Consul-General gave notice to the foreign Consuls, advising them to withdraw all their subjects from the town within twenty-four hours. All British subjects were warned to embark that evening, and the British Agency and Consular staff quitted their quarters on shore and went on board the Peninsular and Oriental steamship *Tanjore*. Sir Auckland Colvin and Mr. Cartwright, the British Consul, also visited the Khedive, and urged him to seek safety on board a man-of-war, but he firmly declined to leave his palace, stating that as Egypt was in danger of being attacked by a foreign power, he would take no step which could lay him open to the accusation of abandoning his country at the moment of hostilities. Early on the morning of July 10th, Admiral Seymour despatched an ultimatum to the Egyptian Ministry, demanding not only the cessation of all defensive works, but the surrender of the forts at the mouth of the harbour. Throughout that day a final exodus of the few Europeans remaining at Alexandria took place. The British ironclads took up their allotted stations opposite the points which they were deputed to bombard. All the foreign merchant steamers left the harbour, and the war vessels steamed outside, saluting as they passed the Admiral's ship, and the Americans even going so far as to play "God save the Queen." The French ironclads, however, went off to Port Said, leaving two small gunboats behind. Care was taken by the British authorities to maintain telegraphic communication with Europe, both the Alexandria and Cyprus cables being picked up by the Eastern Telegraph Company's ship *Chiltern*, and a telegraph office being duly installed on board. At one o'clock Raghib Pasha and some members of his Ministry visited the Admiral, in order, they stated, to inquire the reason of the hostile preparations, and declaring that they had not received the Admiral's letter. Being informed of its contents, they returned on shore to hold council. No message of surrender, however, came off that evening, and all the British vessels completed their preparations for beginning the bombardment next morning. The twenty-four hours' notice expired at five o'clock on the morning of Tuesday, the 11th, and at 4 a.m. the order was given to prepare for action. At the last moment the Egyptian Ministry made a faint attempt at further procrastination by despatching some Turkish officers to the *Helicon* with a letter offering to dismount certain guns of the forts. To this Admiral Seymour replied that the time



for negotiations had passed, and punctually at 7 a.m. the signal "Attack the enemy's batteries" was hoisted by the *Invincible*, on board which vessel Admiral Seymour had taken up his quarters.

Thirteen British vessels took part in the bombardment, eight being ironclads: the *Alexandra* (9,490 tons, and carrying two 25-ton guns and ten 18-ton guns), commander, Captain Charles F. Hotham; the *Inflexible* (11,400 tons, and carrying four 81-ton guns in two turrets), Captain John A. Fisher; the *Téméraire* (8,540 tons, and carrying four 18-ton and four 25-ton guns), Captain Henry F. Nicholson; the *Invincible* (6,010 tons, and carrying fourteen 12-ton guns), Captain Robert H. M. Molyneaux; the *Sultan* (9,290 tons, and carrying eight 18-ton and four 12-ton guns), Captain Walter J. Hunt Grubbe; the *Superb* (9,100 tons, and carrying sixteen guns), Captain Thomas Le Hunter Warde; the *Monarch* (8,320 tons, carrying seven guns, four being of 25 tons), Captain Henry Fairfax, C.B.; and the *Penelope* (4,470 tons, carrying eleven 12-ton guns), Captain St. George C. D'Arcy-Irvine. The remaining five were gunboats: the *Beacon* (carrying four guns), Commander Hand; the *Bittern* (carrying three guns), Commander Brand; the *Cygnets* (carrying four guns), Commander Ryder; the *Condor* (carrying three guns), Commander Lord Charles Beresford; and the *Decoy* (carrying four guns), Commander Boldero. The total British force thus represented a strength of 3,539 men and 102 guns. To describe the relative position of the bombarding fleet and the forts on shore, we should mention that the peninsula on which Alexandria is built has not inappropriately been described as an elongated boot, with the Eunostos Lighthouse and Fort Ras-el-Tin at the toe, Fort Ada at the heel, and further east Pharos Fort at the spur. To the east lay the new or smaller harbour, which played no part in the action, the great chain of defences lying to the west along the coast of the old or larger harbour, and extending to Marabout Islands. The disposition of the fleet was as follows:—The *Alexandra*, *Sultan*, and *Superb* kept in the open outside the harbour, and steaming up and down, attacked the defences on the extreme east from Eunostos Point to Fort Pharos. Proceeding west, the *Inflexible* and *Téméraire* were stationed opposite the mouth of the harbour; the *Monarch*, *Invincible* (on board of which Admiral Seymour had hoisted his flag), and *Penelope* remained inside the harbour to attack the Mex Forts at close quarters. The gunboats were to hold themselves in readiness for whatever work they might be ordered to undertake. As we have said, the *Alexandra* was signalled to fire the first shot at 7 a.m., the target being the Pharos Fort. The fire was immediately returned, and then the

remainder of the fleet joined in the action. The Egyptians replied on all sides with great courage and unexpected energy, but as a rule their gunnery was bad, and the missiles could effect little against the heavy armour of the British vessels. The *Téméraire* for a time grounded on a sandbank, but was speedily assisted off by the *Condor* and the *Beacon*. For an hour and a half the bombardment was continued with but little visible effect, and the Marabout Fort, the second strongest in the Alexandrian defences, and situated at the extreme west of the harbour, was seriously harassing the *Penelope*, *Invincible*, and *Monarch*. Accordingly, Lord Charles Beresford was ordered to take the *Condor* close in shore, and to divert the attention of the fort. This manœuvre Lord Charles Beresford executed with such skill and courage as will give the *Condor* a place of honour in naval annals. Steaming as close in shore as the shoal would allow, she poured shot upon shot into the fort, dismounting gun after gun with complete success, while the Egyptian gunners, who at first had paid no attention to so small a vessel, finally concentrated their fire upon her without any effect. So quickly did Lord Charles Beresford manœuvre his little craft, that no sooner had the Egyptians brought a gun to bear upon her than she had moved out of harm's way. With the aid of the *Beacon*, the *Cygnets*, and *Bitterns*, which came up later, Fort Marabout was completely silenced, and Lord Charles Beresford received the well-earned honour of a special signal from the Admiral, "Well done, *Condor*." Meanwhile the terrible fire of the *Monarch*, *Invincible*, and *Penelope* was beginning to tell upon the Mex Forts. At 8.40 a.m. the fort of Marsa-el-Kanat blew up with a tremendous explosion, by 9 o'clock all but four guns were silenced, two hours later those four guns no further gave any sign, the gunboats rendering great assistance by firing close in shore. The *Téméraire*, together with the *Inflexible*, had previously joined in the attack (both of the last-named vessels firing from a long range, doing great execution), and at noon the *Monarch* was despatched to level the fort, and a landing party, under the command of Lieutenant Barton R. Bradford, Flag-lieutenant the Honourable Hedworth Lambton, and Major Tulloch, were sent on shore to spike the guns, a task which they achieved with safety, the forts being completely deserted. Eastward, the *Alexandra*, *Sultan*, and *Superb*, had been pounding with great success at the Lighthouse, Ada, and Pharos Forts. Here, however, some Moncrieff guns on the lighthouse battery replied with considerable effect, but, nevertheless, the lighthouse batteries soon fell in ruins, while the Ras-el-Tin palace took fire at half past ten. After the silencing of Fort Mex, the *Inflexible* joined the eastern squadron, and the

effect of her 81-ton guns was soon made manifest by the blowing up of Fort Ada at half-past one. The vessels then devoted their attention to Fort Pharos, which was effectually silenced by 4 p.m.; and at 5.30 p.m. the order, "Cease firing," was hoisted, the cannonade having lasted for ten and a half hours. The casualties of the British fleet were remarkably small, when the enormous artillery power on shore is considered. The *Alexandra* appears to have suffered most, receiving some twenty-five shots in her hull, and considerable damage from the bursting of shells. Two of her guns were also disabled by splitting, and her casualties amounted to one man killed and three wounded. The *Invincible* was frequently struck, and six shots penetrated the unarmoured portion of her hull; the only casualties on board were a midshipman and five men wounded. On board the *Inflexible* one man was killed and two wounded, one of whom, Lieutenant Francis Sidney Jackson, subsequently died. The *Sultan* lost two men and counted seven wounded; on board the *Superb* only one was killed, and one wounded; the *Penelope*, however, suffered severely, having a gun disabled and eight men wounded. The *Monarch* does not appear to have been hit once, while the gunboats escaped with but little injury. The Egyptian gunners fought their guns exceedingly well, standing by them to the very last, until the forts were actually in ruins; the officers also set a brave example, and could be seen jumping upon the parapets to ascertain the effects of their fire.

In the evening the vessels were, one by one, withdrawn from their positions, being compelled to use the utmost caution in feeling their way through the dangerous shoals and narrow passes of the harbour approaches. At a distance of three miles from the shore the vessels were drawn up in line for the night, keeping a vigilant watch with the electric light against a torpedo attack. In the morning, the first proceeding was the solemn ceremony of committing the dead to the deep, and this at an end, the fighting-flags were once more hoisted, and the vessels steamed ahead for action. The sea, however, was running high, and the rolling of the ships preventing any sure aim, so it was decided that no concerted firing should be begun until later in the day, as the town would run great risk of injury by the shots flying over the forts. Shortly after 10 a.m., however, the *Inflexible* and *Téméraire* fired upon the lighthouse forts. Upon this, a flag of truce was hoisted upon the arsenal, and the *Bittern* was accordingly despatched to ascertain the reason. Her commander, Lieutenant Lambton, had an interview with Toulba Pasha, the military commandant of Alexandria, on board the Khedive's yacht, the *Mahroussa*. After complimenting the Egyptians on their courageous resistance,

Lieutenant Lambton stated that before any negotiations could be considered the forts commanding the entrance to the harbour must be surrendered. Toulba Pasha, however, refused to comply with these terms, alleging that he must first consult the Khedive and his Ministers, who were at Ramleh; and Lieutenant Lambton, having informed him that the bombardment would recommence at 3.30, the *Bittern* returned to report to the Admiral. At 4 o'clock the *Inflexible* fired another shot, and again a flag of truce was hoisted. This time the *Helicon* was sent in answer, but its commander, Captain Morrison, found no one on shore with whom to treat, and it was then discovered that the city had been completely abandoned by Arabi and his troops, and that the flags of truce had been merely used as devices to enable the army to withdraw from the town without further molestation. It was manifest as darkness came on that the retreating soldiery had fired the city, for several huge conflagrations were seen widely extending, and threatening the destruction of the whole town. At daybreak next morning the *Invincible*, *Penelope*, *Monarch*, *Condor*, *Beacon*, and *Bittern*, steamed up to the harbour, and parties of blue-jackets and marines were landed, only to find that the whole European quarter was in flames, and that the town was being ruthlessly looted by hordes of pillaging Bedouins and incendiaries. The Khedive and Dervish Pasha were ascertained to be safe in the Ramleh palace, guarded by a small force of troops. These, it was stated, had been ordered by Arabi to kill the Khedive, but had been bought off by the latter with bribes and promises of promotion. Later in the day, the Khedive and Dervish Pasha drove in to Alexandria, and were placed in safety in the Ras-el-Tin palace and guarded by a strong force of marines. Upon the appearance of the English sailors, troops of Europeans who, despite all warning, had remained in the city, came out of their hiding-places, a large number having barricaded themselves in the Anglo-Egyptian Bank. These told a terrible story of the work of butchery and plunder which was commenced by the soldiery on their evacuation of the city, and was continued by an infuriated mob throughout the night.

To restore order as far as possible parties of seamen and marines paraded the city on July 13th, with Gatling guns; but little could be done to subdue the conflagration, which continued to extend throughout the day. At first the pillagers took little notice of our men, but, after a few trials of strength, they began rapidly to disappear, and such natives as were met either displayed a white flag on a stick as a sign of amity, or bound a red rag round their arm as a sign of allegiance to the Khedive. Throughout the night of the 13th the conflagration

continued, despite the summary punishment, and even execution, of the incendiaries and the marauders. Next day, July 14th, the English Admiral took yet more energetic measures to restore order. The streets were regularly patrolled by a naval police organised by Lord Charles Beresford, while the Americans sent a small body of marines on shore to assist the British in their task. Every man who could be spared from the fleet was landed, and Major Philips, and a strong column of marines with Gatling guns, marched through the town to spike the guns of Fort Caporelli. Occasionally the column halted, and a proclamation was read, declaring that no harm would be done to any one unless detected in looting, when the culprit would be summarily shot. The condition of the streets was terrible, the shops being gutted and the goods lying in the roadway. Efforts were now being made, however, to check the conflagration, and the appearance of the British force seemingly began to restore confidence, as some of the Arabs even reopened their shops. All the gates of the city were occupied by blue-jackets, but little could be done that day to re-establish even a semblance of order to the burning town. Next day, the 15th, the conflagration had been considerably checked, and it was possible to ascertain, in some degree, the actual condition of the city. The Russian, German, and Greek men-of-war disembarked detachments of men to aid the British naval police force, the commanders of the French, Austrian, and Italian ships declining to afford any assistance. The forts were found to have been injured to a much greater extent than had been at first thought, while, as for the town, the European quarter was a mass of blackened ruins. A resident of seventeen years, on reaching the Square, could not even find the openings of streets perfectly familiar to him, and could only guess where certain well-known houses had stood by their relative position to the equestrian statue of Mehemet Ali which stood in the middle of the Square. The British Consulate and Telegraph Office were burned, but the English, Greek, and Roman Catholic churches were safe and sound, as also the Bourse, the principal banks, and both the European and German hospitals. The sisters of the latter deserve a mention for their courage in keeping to their post throughout the bombardment, despite the threats of the mob, who burst in upon them, and compelled them to haul down the German flag, which they declared was a signal to the fleet. For the few following days the work of restoration of order, under Lord Charles Beresford and Captain Fisher of the *Inflexible*, who commanded the naval brigade, proceeded rapidly. The city was divided into police districts, and vigilantly patrolled; houses were blown up to arrest

the progress of the flames ; the streets were cleared of the ruins as far as possible ; and within a week a European might walk or drive from one end to the other with perfect safety. On July 17th, the first detachment of British troops, under the command of Sir Archibald Alison, numbering some 2,400, arrived on the *Northumberland*, *Agincourt*, and the transports *Nerissa* and *Tamar*. Meanwhile Arabi Pasha was at Kafr Dowar, about fourteen miles off, with his army. The Khedive at first was unwilling to issue a proclamation declaring him a rebel, as he feared that such a step would be the signal for the looting of Cairo. He summoned Arabi to present himself in Alexandria, a summons which Arabi characteristically treated with utter contempt. The Minister for Foreign Affairs, however, assured the Admiral, in a somewhat superfluous note, that as the military preparations which Arabi Pasha was making were against the will of the Khedive ; he had therefore been dismissed from his functions, but the publication of the fact was deferred for the reason above mentioned. Dervish Pasha, who had made no utterance throughout, left Cairo, and returned to Constantinople on July 19th.

The general effect which the news of the bombardment produced upon Europe in general was that of surprise, not to say bewilderment. To the last moment it was not believed that England would carry out her threat. France, whose Government maintained a complete diplomatic concord with that of England, had given her Admiral instructions in no way to interfere, and indeed had despatched him and the main portion of his fleet to Port Said out of temptation's way upon the publication of the twenty-four hours' notice of the bombardment given by Admiral Seymour to the Egyptian Government. The vigorous initiative of England was received by the Paris press at first in almost dumb astonishment, and then ensued a battle royal between M. Gambetta and his party, who advocated joint action with England, and the Ministry who were manifestly anxious to maintain a peaceful and cautious policy. At the same time M. de Freycinet though assuring the Chamber that the Government would not undertake armed intervention without the consent of the Deputies asked them for a vote of £313,000 for naval preparations. He explained that this vote by no means implied an expedition, but was demanded in order that the navy might be placed on a proper footing, and to carry out precautionary measures absolutely necessary at a time when all the European Powers were arming, and it behoved France to be ready for every eventuality. M. Gambetta, on the other hand, in a stirring speech, urged the necessity for France to join England in intervention in Egypt. Had France

parted company with her ally, he demanded, and was she to be driven from the Mediterranean by Mussulman influence? Notwithstanding all M. de Freycinet's apologies and all M. Gambetta's eloquence, a subsequent application for a further vote of funds brought about M. de Freycinet's fall, as France, or at least the French Chamber, was determined to leave England to go to Egypt alone. In Germany, where a vigorous military policy was sure to find favour, it was generally acknowledged that England had done the right thing, and the necessity was admitted for protecting the great interests which she had in Egypt. At the same time the question was raised whether the terms of the *protocole de désintéressement* had not been broken by her isolated action. Much the same feeling, though mixed with no little jealousy, prevailed in Austria; while Italy showed herself still more critical and suspicious. The Porte, which had been informed by the British Ambassador both of the ultimatum and of the intended bombardment, had vainly striven to postpone the evil day by several energetically-worded notes. Finding that his remonstrances had no effect, and that the bombardment had commenced, Said Pasha did not even then lose all hope, and once more telegraphed to London to implore Lord Granville to order the suspension of the bombardment. When the bombardment became an actual fact, the bewilderment and indecision usually prevailing at the Porte in times of crisis were more marked than ever. Continual Cabinet Councils were held, at which Said Pasha, by whom Abdul Rahman had been superseded a few days previously, was by no means of the same mind as the Sultan. The Minister wished to declare Arabi a rebel, and to send troops to restore order. The Sultan, however, was of a very different opinion. His sympathies were manifestly with Arabi, and he feared to risk his Caliphate by taking part with infidels against Mussulmans, who, in the eyes of True Believers had only done their duty in resisting the attack of the Giaours. Yet he could not shut his eyes to the fact that if he continued to decline intervention that task would be delegated by the Powers to other hands, and Egypt would be lost to him for ever. Nor was this uncertainty in any way dispelled by an Identical Note presented by the Ambassadors of the six Powers on July 15th. This note, it should be stated, was the work of the Conference, which had found some difficulty in drawing up a document that should meet with the support of all Europe. Thanks, however, to the decided action of Lord Dufferin, M. de Hirschfeldt the German delegate, and Baron Calice the Austrian representative, such a document was composed, ratified by the various Governments, and, as we have said, presented to the

Porte. This note plainly stated that "deeply convinced of the necessity for applying a prompt remedy for the disturbed state of Egypt, and for restoring confidence, the great Powers assembled in Conference had decided to appeal to the sovereignty of the Sultan by inviting him to intervene in Egypt, and help the Khedive by sending forces sufficient to establish order, to subdue factious usurpers, and to put an end to that state of anarchy which had desolated the country, produced bloodshed, led to the ruin and flight of thousands of European and Mussulman families, and compromised at once the national and foreign interest." To this, with true Turkish diplomatic equivocation, the Sultan replied by suddenly acknowledging his willingness to enter the Conference. On July 26th, Said Pasha and Assim Pasha made their appearance at that meeting, and Said Pasha at once declared that the Sultan "was in principle not indisposed to undertake a military occupation, but that the conditions contained in the Identical Note would need to be reconsidered." Accordingly, the Conference calmly set to work to "re-consider" these conditions, and the Sultan once more gained his point, and was able to pursue his favourite Micawber-like policy of waiting for something to "turn up."

Meantime, while the Sultan was reflecting, Said Pasha protesting, and the Conference deliberating, England was acting. Alexandria was being restored to something like order, and Sir Archibald Alison, having close upon 6,000 men under his command, was enabled to extend his operations outside, to reconnoitre the position of Arabi and his army, and to occupy strategic points in the neighbourhood. Inside the city the native police were being reorganised, the various incendiaries and plunderers who had been arrested were being tried before a native commissioner specially appointed for the purpose, Lord Charles Beresford acting as public prosecutor. The only apprehension arose from a threatened water famine, Arabi Pasha having dammed the Mahmoudieh Sweet Water Canal, which supplies Alexandria with fresh water from the Nile. Energetic measures, however were taken to fill all the cisterns in Alexandria, to place the inhabitants upon a reasonable allowance of that precious liquid, and to secure ships with sufficient condensing power for the troops. As it was determined that no important military operations were to be undertaken until the arrival of the British expeditionary force which the British Government had decided to despatch in order to secure the safety of the Suez Canal, Sir Archibald Alison and his little force of troops confined their proceedings to occupying the line of railway running to the pretty little suburb of Ramleh. On the 24th the first



important movement was made, and Waterworks Hill, the highest mound within a radius of ten miles of Alexandria, situated in the vicinity of Ramleh—this hill is about equi-distant from the sea and the canal, and overlooked Arabi's camp, about five miles distant—was seized and fortified with 40-pounder and 9-pounder guns. The British troops were not allowed to occupy so important a position unopposed, and a sharp skirmish ensued with the enemy, who ultimately, however, retired, leaving the British in possession.

Though, like the British, playing a waiting game, Arabi Pasha was by no means idle all this time. Besides strongly entrenching himself in his encampment, he had tried to justify his position in the eyes of his countrymen by various proclamations, declaring that the Khedive, upon the evacuation of Alexandria by the Egyptian troops, had demanded soldiers from the English, whom he had distributed throughout the town, and who, at his instigation, killed with sword and shot such soldiers as had been left in charge of the city. The Khedive, Arabi asserted, remained at night afloat among the English, and at day returned to land to order the continual slaughter of Moslems. Arabi accordingly called upon his countrymen to exercise fervent action, and religious and patriotic zeal, to continue to carry out his orders, and not to obey any that did not emanate from him. "The defence of our country and our religion," he concluded, "is obligatory according to Moslem law and faith. He also called a meeting in Cairo of all the Pashas, Ulemas, and Notables, repeated his accusations of the bad faith of the Khedive, and asked them the question whether it was right to obey the Khedive's orders and suspend the military operations. For the third time, however, within the past few months, the Notables declined to comply with Arabi's wishes. With true Oriental evasiveness they declared that proof must be given of the Khedive's treachery, and appointed a committee of seven of their members to proceed to Alexandria in order to verify Arabi's statements. Arabi thus thrown on his own resources, devoted his energy to arousing the fanatical feelings of his countrymen, and reinforcing his army by forced levies. Nevertheless, no disturbances took place at Cairo, but terrible massacres of Europeans were perpetrated at the towns of Damanhour, Tantah, and Mahalla. Omar Pasha Lufti, who had escaped from Cairo, and had been appointed the new Governor of Alexandria, reported to the Khedive that he had seen Europeans murdered, and their houses pillaged. A more terrible account was subsequently given by an Italian refugee, who stated that at Tantah eighty-five Christians had been murdered, and the bodies

left lying about the streets. A similar account came from Mahalla, where the women are described as behaving like demons ; the way they illtreated and mutilated the murdered victims, spat at them, and shrieked about the town being truly diabolical. On his side, the Khedive, driven to bay by these outrages, and the open defiance of his authority by Arabi, finally issued the proclamation declaring him a rebel, dismissing him from his post, and holding up the British as the restorers of order. He entered into a polemical argument to show that France and England have paramount interests in Egypt, and that the despatch of the combined fleet was consequent on the anarchy then reigning in Egypt, and the undue usurpation and power by "a band of ambitious and lawless men of whom Arabi is the chief." Intervention was the natural sequence to this state of affairs, with the object, not of taking Egypt, but of restoring order. As for the reported outrages by British troops, the exact contrary was the truth, for they put out the incendiary fires, and arrested and punished the plunderers. This was duly sent by the Khedive to Arabi, and thereupon ensued another exchange of proclamations, Arabi, continuing to hold up the Khedive as a traitor to his country and his religion, and the Khedive to denounce Arabi as a rebel against his lawful ruler. Admiral Seymour also joined in with a letter declaring that the Government of Great Britain had not the least intention of making the conquest of Egypt, nor in any way of attacking the religion or the liberties of the Egyptians. The British Government had for its sole object the protection of the Khedive and the Egyptian people against rebels, and had resolved to repress the existing rebellion and to re-establish order in the country.

On July 27th the *Orontes* arrived at Alexandria with the 49th Regiment, General Alison's Force having hitherto consisted of the 60th Rifles and the 38th Regiment, together with blue-jackets and marines. Skirmishes took place almost daily, and an armoured train was organised, and rendered great service by conveying reconnoitring and mining parties along the Ramleh railroad. Thus on the 29th there was a reconnoissance to Millaha, the force consisting of 300 marines and mounted infantry, two Nordenfeldts, and one nine-pounder, and being accompanied by General Alison himself and Captain Fisher. Arabi had cut the rails at Millaha. The object of the reconnoissance was to ascertain the amount of the damage effected. A young officer, Midshipman de Chair, was taken prisoner while carrying despatches to Ramleh. He appears, however, to have been well treated by Arabi, and to have been lodged in a manner more fit for a princely guest than

a prisoner of war. Considerable uneasiness was felt at the continued occupation by Arabi of the Aboukir forts, which were being formidably strengthened under cover of the white flag. There was much talk of a bombardment, but no action was definitively taken by the naval and military authorities. On August 2nd there was a sharp skirmish between our troops and some mounted Arabs; and on August 5th an important reconnoissance in force was made in the direction of the enemy's lines. The force, which consisted of some 1,400 men, included some companies of the 38th and 46th Regiments, the 60th Rifles, Mounted Infantry, and part of the Naval Brigade. In a sharp skirmish which ensued, our troops appear to have behaved well and to have dislodged the enemy from their position. The casualties were few: one officer, Lieutenant Howard Vyse, Third King's Royal Rifle Corps, and four men killed, and twenty-two men wounded; the enemy's loss, from the number of dead seen, was estimated at between two and three hundred, and one officer and fourteen men were taken prisoners. According to the prisoners, Arabi's force at Kafr-Dowar amounted to 16,000 men. This was the first and the last engagement of any importance until the arrival of the Expeditionary Force, the advanced guard of which reached Alexandria in the *Orient* and *Salamis*, with the Duke of Connaught and Sir John Adye, on August 10th.

To turn a while from Alexandria to Constantinople, no sooner had the British Government definitively declared its intention of despatching a military expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley, which was officially communicated to the Porte on July 30th, than the Porte with unusual promptness declared to the Conference that the Sultan would send troops to Alexandria upon the conditions laid down in the Identic note. Here, however, he was met by a declaration from Lord Dufferin. The British Ambassador gave the Conference an explanation of England's action. He stated that the Alexandrian forts were destroyed solely as a measure of defence, while subsequent steps were imposed by *force majeure*. England's sole object was to restore peace and order, to secure the free navigation of the Suez Canal, and to re-establish the authority of the Khedive. While England would accept the co-operation of any Power which might be ready to give it, and would be glad in particular to be relieved of the uncertainty in regard to the real intentions of the Sultan, which had been largely caused by the decoration bestowed on Arabi Pasha, she now required that a proclamation should be issued by the Sultan declaring Arabi Pasha a rebel. To this the Ottoman plenipotentiaries replied by denying the accusation of England that the Porte

had been inactive, for after the presentation of the Identic note the Porte had agreed to take part in the Conference and to despatch troops to Egypt. As for declaring Arabi a rebel, this step would be taken when the Turkish troops had been landed at Alexandria. To this Lord Dufferin again replied by insisting upon the proclamation at once, and stating that otherwise the landing of Turkish troops could not take place. And, indeed, here we may say that the Porte, for once supplementing its words by action, hastened to despatch some 3,000 troops to Suda Bay in readiness to be sent to Egypt at the shortest notice. There had previously been some little apprehension that the Conference might be broken up, as at the first declaration that England would act by herself, the Russian delegate, M. d'Onou, had received instructions from St. Petersburg to attend no more meetings of the Conference until further notice. However, the Russian Government ultimately reconsidered its decision, and their delegate duly attended the meeting above mentioned. From this time the Conference played but little part in Egyptian affairs, the eyes of all Europe were fixed upon England and her Expedition; and while there were many expressions of disapproval, it could not but be admitted on all sides that her isolated action had been forced upon her by the inaction of the other Powers. There was, however, one person besides the Sultan who was by no means contented with the aspect of affairs; this was M. de Lesseps, who feared for the safety of the Suez Canal. Like Abdul Hamid, he had protested against the violation of what he considered his territory by the British Admiral, for this latter had not only for some days after the bombardment warned British vessels that they would enter the Canal at their own risk, but had even despatched war vessels to protect the Canal from hostile attacks. Moreover, M. de Lesseps was maintaining not only communications, but a close connection with Arabi, who at that time was at Nefiche, near Ismailia; and, looking upon M. de Lesseps as an ally, gave him full power to issue passports to pass freely through his lines.

From Cairo, Arabi, with great assurance, continued to fulminate proclamations declaring the deposition of the Khedive, and to despatch telegrams to the Porte, detailing the "outrages" committed by the English, and the "defeats" which his troops had inflicted upon them at Ramleh. At a large meeting held at Cairo also the utmost confidence is stated to have been declared in Arabi, and war to the knife to have been acclaimed against the British. Arabi, however, was by no means above taking hints from the despised Giaour, and in his turn established an ironclad train, in order to harass the British outposts. With characteristic

shrewdness, he was in no way blind to the fact that sooner or later Suez would be occupied by the British ; and, in order to prepare against any advance upon Cairo from the East, he stationed a considerable portion of his forces at Nefiche, which he commenced to fortify by means of earthworks. Nor was his apprehension unjustifiable, as Admiral Hewett occupied Suez with 450 marines on August 2nd, in readiness for the arrival of the Indian contingent. No resistance was offered by the inhabitants, and the marines were speedily strengthened by the arrival of a detachment of Seaforth Highlanders from Aden. In Alexandria, the troops continued to arrive almost daily, and on August 15th Sir Garnet Wolseley, the British Commander-in-Chief, arrived. On the same day the Khedive issued two decrees, one authorising the British Admiral and Commander-in-Chief to seize all coal or munitions of war being imported along the coast, the other announcing to the civil and military authorities in the Isthmus of Suez that the British Admiral and Commander-in-Chief were charged to re-establish order in Egypt, and were authorised to occupy all the points which they might consider useful for military operations against the rebels. No military operations, however, in the strict sense of the word, were begun for some days by Sir Garnet Wolseley. He inspected the Ramleh lines, it is true, and held various councils of war, but postponed any active movement until he should have a strong force at his disposal. When all was ready, following the precepts laid down by himself in his handbook, viz., to deceive the enemy and the world in general by those "necessary evils of modern civilisation, the war correspondents of the press," he spread abroad a detailed report that he intended to attack the forts at Aboukir ; to reduce that stronghold to submission, and to occupy it in force. Then, on August 19th, after promulgating a proclamation that the mission of the British troops was to re-establish the Khedive's authority, and that all peaceable inhabitants would be treated with kindness, their property respected, and all supplies requisitioned paid for, Sir Garnet Wolseley, Lieutenant-General Sir John Adye, and the greater portion of the British army, embarking on board five ironclads and sixteen transports, sailed with the greatest possible parade for Aboukir Bay. The fleet duly arrived at Aboukir Bay in the afternoon, but at 8 p.m., under cover of the darkness, the vessels weighed anchor, and at full speed steamed for Port Said and the entrance of the Suez Canal, arriving there at ten o'clock next morning. A few hours previously, Port Said had been occupied by the naval brigade, consisting of 500 sailors and marines, the Arab garrisons being disarmed without the slightest resistance. In fact, the naval

commanders, whose ships, as we have said, had been carefully stationed at the principal points of the Canal, acted in concert on that morning, and in a few hours the whole length of that important channel was completely in possession of the British. This movement, there is little doubt, had been planned even before Sir Garnet Wolseley had left England. Port Said was occupied, as we have said, under Captain Fairfax, of H.M.S. *Monarch*, Ismailia was seized by the naval brigade under Captain Fitz-Roy, some resistance being offered, but ineffectually, while Nefiche was taken possession of by General Graham, and the only fighting worth mentioning took place at Chalouf, a station a short distance from Suez. Thither, on the 20th, Captain Hastings, of H.M.S. *Euryalus*, and Lieutenant-Colonel H. H. Jones, R.E., with 200 Highlanders and the seamen and marines of H.M.S. *Seagull* and *Mosquito*, had proceeded in those vessels. On arriving at Chalouf, no enemy was to be seen, but it was found that the Arabs had cut the dam of the Freshwater Canal which runs from Ismailia to Suez, and that consequently the water was pouring into the navigable canal, and, rapidly forcing up a shoal, threatened to impede the passage of vessels. Accordingly, marines were at once landed to repair the damage. No sooner, however, had our troops set foot on shore than they were saluted by a sharp fusillade from the enemy, who, 600 strong, were in ambuscade behind the numerous ridges, which rendered that district a perfect fortress. The enemy were promptly answered by a rattling fire from the Gatlings and 7-pounder guns, which had been mounted on platforms on the main and foretops of the British vessels, and the Highlanders were put on shore to attack the foe by land. A sharp engagement lasted for five and a half hours, until a young officer, Lieutenant Lang, swimming across the Freshwater Canal, and, securing a boat, ferried his men over, and turned the enemy's flank. Sixty-two prisoners, one small cannon, and large quantities of arms, ammunition, and stores were captured from the enemy, who left 168 killed on the field. Our loss was two men drowned and two wounded. Next day the important position of Nefiche was occupied without opposition. Sir Garnet Wolseley established his head-quarters at Ismailia, where the troops were rapidly landed from the transports. There was some disappointment, however, created by the forethought of Arabi, who had been careful to remove all locomotive engines, so that the expected facilities for transport in the interior would not thus be forthcoming. On the same day in Alexandria there was a reconnoissance in force under General Hamley, and next day there was yet another under Sir Archibald Alison and Sir Evelyn Wood.

These skirmishes, however, which were frequently repeated on subsequent days, were of no real military importance, serving mainly to keep the enemy on the alert, and our own soldiers in training. Not that many troops had been left at Alexandria, which was used chiefly as a depôt, and as a training school for our soldiers hitherto unskilled in the art of real warfare. In the meantime the Khedive whiled away the time by forming a new Ministry under Cherif Pasha.

On August 21st, the Indian troops, under General Macpherson, began to arrive at Suez, and thus reinforced the British force in Egypt mustered 31,468 men, of whom 23,987 were Europeans. Having secured the safety of the Suez Canal and the passage of his transports, Sir Garnet Wolseley once more declared the Canal open to traffic, and M. de Lesseps, now that the British occupation was complete, recognised the accomplished fact, and, announcing that a *modus vivendi* had been established so as to permit the regular working of the Canal, held out the hand of friendship to the British commander, disclaimed all further opposition, and returned to Paris. For three days Sir Garnet Wolseley remained at Ismailia landing his troops, and forming the necessary depôt. Finding, however, that the Freshwater Canal, which supplied Ismailia and Suez with drinking water from the Nile, had been dammed by the enemy, Sir Garnet Wolseley and his staff took a detachment of the Household Cavalry, two guns of the horse artillery, some thirty of the mounted infantry, about 1,000 infantry of the York and Lancaster regiments and the Royal Marines, a detachment of the horse artillery with two guns, and a small body of marines, on the 24th, and advanced towards Arabi's lines. It was thought that Mustapha Pasha, with 15,000 troops, was in front of Nefiche, while the main body of Arabi's army was at Tel-el-Kebir, a stronghold about twenty-eight miles from Nefiche, and on the direct road to Cairo. The route from Ismailia to Cairo had been decided upon by Sir Garnet Wolseley as the line of advance to be followed, particularly as the route in question was that of the railway and the Freshwater Canal, forming a narrow strip of oasis traversing the desert. The first important point to be gained was evidently the town of Zagazig, situated about forty miles from Ismailia, and about fifty from Cairo. Nefiche, as we have said, was already in the hands of the British, and it was beyond this that the advance was made on the 24th. No signs of the enemy were discerned until El Mafgar, in the neighbourhood of Tel-el-Mahuta, was reached, when the dam which had been constructed across the canal by the enemy was found. The Egyptians then showed themselves, and opened a warm fire,

being strongly reinforced in the rear. Sir Garnet Wolseley estimated that the Egyptian force amounted to 10,000 men, with twelve guns, but nevertheless decided to hold his position throughout the day. The two British guns were served with great pluck and ability by Lieutenant Hickman and his men, while a couple of Gatlings, worked by a detachment of seamen, did good service. During the night considerable reinforcements arrived, and by the morning Sir Garnet Wolseley had at his disposal the first division and all the English cavalry brigade, together with sixteen guns. At daybreak, accordingly, the troops were again on the move, and as it was ascertained that the enemy was strongly entrenched at Mahuta, a severe engagement was expected, and an elaborate plan had been laid to take the enemy's position in the flank. This movement was duly carried out, but matters were greatly facilitated by the enemy having evacuated Mahuta and fallen back on Mahsameh. Here General Drury-Lowe, who commanded the cavalry, warmly attacked the enemy, whom he routed with considerable loss, taking their camp, five Krupp guns, and seventy-five railway carriages laden with provisions and a large quantity of ammunition and Remington rifles. Notwithstanding the great disparagement of forces, the British casualties were singularly few. Captain Hallam Parr, who led some gallant charges of the mounted infantry, together with Lord Melgund and Major Bibby, of the Seventh Dragoon Guards, were wounded, and five men killed and twenty-five wounded in the two days' fighting. Although the horses had only been landed on the previous day, and were consequently in no way fit for such heavy work as the deep, loose sand of the desert entailed upon them, they nevertheless behaved exceedingly well, and made some admirable charges. The Guards' Brigade also, under the Duke of Connaught, well carried out their traditions for endurance by performing a wearisome march across the desert to Mahuta, wading literally ankle-deep through the burning sand. There were a number of cases of mild sunstroke reported during the two days, but the majority speedily recovered under treatment. Next day a further position, Kassassin Lock on the Freshwater Canal, was occupied by the troops, and here Sir Garnet Wolseley determined to halt whilst awaiting further reinforcements, in order to attack in force Tel-el-Kebir, where the main body of the Egyptians had strongly entrenched themselves. On the 28th August, the advanced guard of the British army at Kassassin, consisting of a little over 1,800 men and three guns, was attacked in a desultory manner throughout the day. In the evening, however, the enemy advanced in force, their troops being estimated at 1,000 cavalry, 8,000 infantry, and twelve guns.



Upon this, General Graham sent to Mahsameh, at the rear, for reinforcements of the cavalry brigade and marines, and then warmly engaged the enemy. Colonel Tewson and the marines turned the enemy's flank, and the Household Cavalry, earning well-deserved credit by their splendid charges under Colonel Ewart and Sir Baker Russell, completely disconcerted and routed the enemy. The British casualties amounted to Surgeon-Major Shaw and two men killed, and about fifty wounded. The Egyptian artillerymen were charged and sabred at the cannon's mouth, but from some unexplained reason the guns themselves were not secured, and the enemy succeeded in carrying them off during the night. The enemy were completely defeated, and retreated to Tel-el-Kebir, where it was now stated the Egyptians had concentrated an army of 28,000 men. Arabi Pasha was himself said to have been on the field.

Despite these signal successes, which, we may add, had been supplemented by the capture of Arabi's chief engineer and military adviser, Mahmoud Fehmy Pasha, Sir Garnet Wolseley was not able to make an immediate advance, owing to the reason which has delayed so many British armies in the field—want of transport. He had now 11,000 men at Ismailia and the front, but he had not the means of carrying the necessary supplies for the advance of the whole army. Railway carriages he had in plenty, and the permanent way was good; he had no engines, however, and when two or three did arrive their machinery was too complicated to be understood by the amateur drivers, and even when set in motion the engines were too weak to do the work. The water in the Canal, dammed higher up by the enemy, had been rapidly falling, until even steam launches stuck in the mud; few mules were forthcoming, and the British, therefore, were compelled to halt in the beginning of their success. The health of the troops continued good. There were many cases of diarrhoea and of sun fever, but these mainly yielded to ordinary treatment, and the number of invalids was not serious. The great danger lay, mainly, not merely from the want of water, for there still remained sufficient in the Canal to supply the troops, but from the terrible pollution of the liquid itself, the Arabs having resorted to their old plan of throwing the dead bodies of men and animals into the stream above.

Throughout this time, the European Powers had remained perfectly quiescent, although the popular press had commented upon England's action more or less favourably as the feelings and interests of each particular country prompted. Italy, it is true, made a definite proposition to the Conference that an international police should be organised to take charge of the Suez

Canal; but while accepted by the Powers, the proposition languished, and, it may be said, died a natural death through want of support. Earl Dufferin and the Porte continued to wrangle with regard to the proclamation of Arabi as a rebel, and on this being settled, respecting the points at which the Turkish troops should be landed. For a long time the British Government refused to permit the troops to land except at Aboukir, Damietta, and Rosetta, to each of which places the Porte opposed a decided objection. Finally, the British Government yielded, and agreed to the Turkish troops being landed at Port Said. On his side, the Sultan issued the long delayed proclamation, declaring Arabi a rebel for his conduct in resisting the Khedive's orders, thus disturbing peace and security, causing death and irrevocable ruin to a host of people, and, finally, provoking the armed intervention of Foreign Powers. This proclamation, however, differed from the form sanctioned by Lord Dufferin, and a species of see-saw negotiation ensued, but, though our Ambassador made every effort to induce the Sultan to sign the Convention with alterations suggested by the British Government, the Porte still pursued its favourite policy of procrastination, and even the news of the victory of Tel-el-Kebir, the complete dispersion of the Egyptian army, the surrender of Arabi, and the occupation of Cairo, did not have any effect in inducing the Sultan to conclude matters. Finally, on September 19th, Lord Dufferin intimated that, as all resistance in Egypt had been overcome, a military convention was superfluous, and consequently all negotiations to that effect were at an end. The Porte accepted this intimation with lamb-like submission. Completely cowed by the unlooked-for triumph of British arms in Egypt, Turkey now made no angry protests against England's action, confining herself to a civil inquiry of Lord Dufferin as to when the British troops would be withdrawn, now that all armed opposition was at an end.

To return to the military operations in Egypt. For nearly a fortnight after the repulse of Arabi's attack on Kassassin Lock, on August 28th, the whole attention of Sir Garnet Wolseley and his generals was devoted towards concentrating the British forces at Ismailia and pushing them forward to the front at Kassassin. Sir Archibald Alison and General Hamley, with the troops under their command, were brought from Alexandria to the base of operations, Alexandria being left in the charge of Sir Evelyn Wood, who kept the large Egyptian force which still existed at Kafr-Dowar well employed by continual bombardment, numerous reconnoissances, and occasional skirmishes, and thus in the early part of September some 25,000 men were mustered on the line

between Ismailia and the front at Kassassin Lock. The camp at the latter place grew daily, until it reached enormous proportions, and new locomotive engines having been procured from Alexandria, the transport service was rendered more efficient. Meanwhile Arabi Pasha had been strengthening his defences at Tel-el-Kebir with great engineering skill, but seems to have been somewhat badly served by his spies, and to have had incomplete information as to the movements of the English troops and their strength at the front. Thus, having previously engaged in an unimportant skirmish with a reconnoissance made by General Graham on September 7th, on September 9th Arabi himself made what has been called a reconnoissance in force, but which in reality was a movement of far greater importance. At seven o'clock in the morning a picket of Bengal Lancers first observed and informed General Graham of a formidable advance of the enemy on the camp. General Graham lost no time in preparing for a warm reception of his visitors; but, meanwhile, the Egyptians themselves had made known their presence by commencing a sharp artillery fire, their shells falling into the camp itself. The British troops were not slow in replying; the artillery began to shell the enemy; the Household Cavalry were despatched upon the right flank of the Egyptians. It being stated that a second Egyptian force was advancing from Salahieh, the infantry, the marines, and King's rifle corps were also advanced, and a sharp musketry combat ensued. Finally, the Egyptians wavered and fell back, several of their guns were captured, and the cavalry sharply followed up the pursuit until almost within range of Tel-el-Kebir itself. Sir Garnet Wolseley, however, who had now come up to the front, forbade any further advance, as he did not wish his ultimate plans to be endangered by the failure of any previous attempt, however slight, to take Arabi's great stronghold, and the troops, accordingly, were ordered back to their quarters. Our casualties were stated to be sixty killed and wounded, but those of the Egyptians, of whom 8,000 men, with twenty-four guns, were on the field, were considerably greater. During the 11th and 12th of September, the British General made several reconnoissances to ascertain the true position of Arabi, the strength of his entrenchments, and, if possible, to gain some idea of the extent of his army. On the evening of the 12th, Sir Garnet Wolseley gave orders to the troops to hold themselves in readiness for an assault upon Tel-el-Kebir. At sundown the tents were struck, and the troops began to move forward, subsequently bivouacking for some hours in the open air behind a hill which lay between the British lines and the enemy's camp. Sir Garnet Wolseley, knowing the

great effect which a surprise invariably produces upon Eastern soldiers, had wisely chosen the night for the forward movement, in order that it might the better be concealed. Moreover, important military operations, which involved great physical exertion, were more easily carried on in the comparative cool of the night and the early morning than in the full blaze of a broiling sun. At half-past one on the morning of the 13th the troops were quietly aroused and silently continued their advance. The British force, which Sir Garnet Wolseley has himself stated to have amounted to 11,000 infantry, 2,000 cavalry, sixty guns, and 214 men of the Naval Brigade with Gatling guns, was disposed as follows:—Beginning from the right, first came the bulk of the Cavalry Brigade and some batteries of the Royal Horse Artillery, who had orders to sweep round the rear of the enemy's lines. Next came a strong body of marines and infantry, under General Graham, supported by the Guards. In the centre was a strong artillery park of forty-two guns, under General Goodenough. On the left of this was the Highland Brigade in the van, commanded by Sir Archibald Alison, who were supported by another strong force of infantry and blue jackets. Still further to the left was the canal with pontoons bearing Gatling guns, the railway with an ironclad train, and the Indian troops and the Seaforth Highlanders, commanded by General Macpherson. Thus both wings of our army were composed of cavalry, while in the centre was the artillery, flanked on either side by strong bodies of infantry. The whole line advanced unobserved until about 4.45 a.m., when the enemy descried General Graham's advanced guard upon an opposite ridge. A single shot first gave the alarm, but in a very short time the whole of the guns of the first line of Arabi's defences were pouring forth a tremendous fire. The infantry were at once ordered to advance; General Graham's brigade, who were some 1,000 yards from the fort, alternately lying down and firing, and then advancing with a rush, while the Highlanders, who had advanced still closer unperceived by the enemy, rushed forward without firing upon the enemy's entrenchment. A hand-to-hand conflict ensued, but the terrible onslaught of our men quickly overcame all resistance, and in a few minutes the first line of Arabi's entrenchments was in the hands of the British. Behind the first line, however, lay a second, strongly defended by batteries; but with another cheer the troops pressed on, driving the enemy from the parapets, and, this position captured, rushing on again to shelter-trench after shelter-trench, until the whole position was gained. In twenty minutes the great Egyptian stronghold was in undisputed possession of the British,

and the whole Egyptian army was flying in the utmost disorder, their leader, Arabi Pasha, having previously taken care to escape to Cairo by train. The cavalry now pursued the fugitives; the Indian Contingent, under General Macpherson, pushing on to Zagazig, and the Household Brigade moving upon Belbeis. Thence, next day, General Drury-Lowe and his troops made a forced march of thirty-nine miles to Cairo, arriving at Abassiyeh, some four miles distant from the city, that evening; there he was met by the commandant, and a detachment of troops with a flag of truce, who unhesitatingly announced his willingness to surrender. General Drury-Lowe told him that Arabi must be given up, and shortly afterwards Arabi, with the Governor and Toulba Pasha, were brought in a carriage to the General's quarters and formally tendered their surrender. "Arabi," says an eye-witness, "bowed courteously, unbuckled his belt, and tendered his sword to the General, Toulba Pasha following his example," Arabi stating that he surrendered unconditionally to the clemency of England. He attempted to make a speech; General Drury-Lowe, however, refused to hear him, and Arabi was subsequently taken a prisoner to the Abdin Palace, where he was afterwards joined by his Swiss ally, M. Ninet. In the evening a small force of Dragoons and mounted infantry, under Captains Darley and Watson, occupied Cairo citadel, and received the submission of 6,000 men, who quietly marched out as the British troops marched in. Next day General Drury-Lowe entered the city, and in the afternoon Sir Garnet Wolseley and the Duke of Connaught arrived, and detachment after detachment of the British troops poured in, until in a few days the major part of the British force was concentrated in the Egyptian capital. It then appeared that throughout the war Arabi had deceived the population by the most extraordinary reports of his successes over the British. When indeed he arrived, after the defeat at Tel-el-Kebir, a rumour went abroad that he was returning from a signal victory over the British, and was bringing Sir Beauchamp Seymour's head as a trophy, together with Sir Garnet Wolseley and the Khedive as prisoners of war. When, however, it was found that he had come back a simple fugitive, the Cairenes, with true Eastern fickleness, jeered and pelted him with stones, and prepared to welcome the British as though they had never entertained the slightest idea of rebellion. Nevertheless, had it not been for the promptness with which General Drury-Lowe and his little force appeared upon the scene, there is little doubt but that there would have been some attempt made to repeat the outrages which caused such terrible devastation at Alexandria two months previously.

The British loss at Tel-el-Kebir was officially announced as nine officers and forty-five men killed, and twenty-two officers and 320 men wounded, of whom several have since died. The whole force of the enemy has been estimated at 20,000 regulars, including 2,500 cavalry, and seventy guns, and 6,000 Bedouins, or irregular troops. An inspection of the Tel-el-Kebir entrenchments after the battle showed that they had been planned with considerable engineering talent. A strong line of earthworks, extending for four miles with a deep trench in front, and armed at intervals with Krupp batteries jutting out so as to enable the artillery to enfilade any attacking force, formed the first line. Next came a second line of shelter-trenches and redoubts, and then again a third line of formidable outworks. Thus, had Tel-el-Kebir been armed by determined troops, it would have been an absolutely impregnable position. As it was, the Egyptians, taken by surprise, and charged at the bayonet point before they had had time to realise the fact that they were attacked in force, offered comparatively little opposition, and although the guns were fairly manned, the fire was wild and had but little effect. The carnage in the trenches appears to have been terrible, and while the exact number of Egyptians killed is not known, it could not have fallen far short of 1,500.

At Alexandria the news of Arabi's defeat caused great rejoicing, and never has the time-serving spirit of the Oriental been more completely shown than by the enthusiastic manner in which all Egyptians, and even those most compromised in the rebellion, hastened to congratulate, with the utmost apparent enthusiasm, the Khedive and the British authorities. The Khedive at once issued a decree dissolving the army, but announcing that all rebel officers would be tried by court-martial. As we have said, the military operations at Alexandria had been chiefly confined to unimportant reconnoissances against Kafr-Dowar. In order more successfully to attack that position preparations had been made to repeat General Abercrombie's experiment in 1801, and to flood Lake Mareotis from the sea. If this were achieved, it was considered that Kafr-Dowar could be successfully bombarded by the steam launches, which would thus be enabled to enter the lake. Accordingly, on the 13th, curiously enough the day of the victory of Tel-el-Kebir, the embankment was blown up and the sea poured into the lake. Unfortunately the force of the water broke down a second dam, and the sea flooded a district which it had been intended to preserve, and even invaded the Freshwater Canal. On account of this, as also owing to the offer of surrender on the part of the Commandant at Kafr-Dowar when he learnt the British victory

at Tel-el-Kebir, the breach which had been made was speedily closed, and the sea restricted to its original bounds. The surrender of Kafr-Dowar officially took place on September 18th. A large portion of the soldiers had left before the actual surrender, but there remained 6,000 troops who formally defiled before their victors and yielded up their arms. The entrenchments at Kafr-Dowar are said to have been a magnificent series of earthworks, which Plevna itself could hardly have surpassed. Three long lines of redoubts, flanked on both sides by impassable ground, and traversed by a railway and a canal, formed a position, like that of Tel-el-Kebir, impregnable if held by a determined force. The soldiers, however, declared that they were glad that Arabi was a prisoner, and that the war was over, and expressed their gratification that, despite their continual firing, they had killed no one. On September 19th, Fort Aboukir was unresistingly surrendered to Admiral Dowell; on September 21st, Fort Gemileh was also given up; while, after some hesitation, Abdellal, and his black regiment, at Damietta, surrendered on September 23rd to Captain Seymour, of H.M.S. *Iris*. On September 25th the Khedive went to Cairo, where he was received with a most effusive official enthusiasm, the streets being profusely decorated, though the dense crowds raised few shouts of welcome as their sovereign, with the Duke of Connaught by his side, and Sir Garnet Wolseley and Sir E. Malet sitting opposite to him, drove through the streets. The city was illuminated in the evening, the houses of the rebels being the most brilliant. The Khedive, however, placed little trust in these outward signs of loyalty, and firmly refused to see those Pashas, and even the Princes, who were implicated in the rebellion, and at his public reception he declined to receive numerous personages of high rank. Meanwhile the Khedive heaped favours upon the British generals. Sir Garnet Wolseley, the Duke of Connaught, the Duke of Teck, Sir Beauchamp Seymour, and Sir E. Malet were decorated with the order of the Osmanieh, while he wished bountifully to decorate the subordinate officers, and to give a special medal to the soldiers. On September 28th some alarm was caused at Cairo by the explosion of a railway truck laden with ammunition at the railway station. The flames spread to an adjoining building, where large stores of forage and ammunition had been accumulated by the British Commissariat authorities. Thanks to the strenuous exertions of the British troops, the fire was localised, and ultimately extinguished, though not without the loss of a non-commissioned officer, who was killed, while Surgeon T. C. Tolmie, two non-commissioned officers, and three privates were wounded. Two days later, on September 30th, there was a grand

review of the bulk of the British army before the Khedive by Sir Garnet Wolseley, in the Abdin Square. The troops, who consisted of 17,266 men, 4,320 horses, 60 guns, and 678 officers, were in magnificent form, despite the hardships of the campaign, and excited the general admiration of the spectators. This may be regarded as the closing military episode of the war, as from this time nothing remains to be chronicled save the continual departure of troops for home, the Household Cavalry and the Royal Artillery leading the van. We should not omit, however, Sir Garnet Wolseley's farewell order of the day, in which he highly praised the conduct of all services throughout the campaign. A force of 10,000 troops has been left in Egypt until order is completely restored, and a new army reorganised under the fostering care of Baker Pasha, to whom the task has been entrusted. As for Arabi and Toulba Pashas, and the various subordinate leaders of the rebellion, they are awaiting their trial by the Special Commission which has been constituted for the purpose, and which consists of two sections—a Court of First Instance and a Superior Court.

The unexpected news of the utter collapse of Arabi and his army, and the unqualified success of the British, created the most profound impression throughout all Europe. In France, the moderate press warmly congratulated England and the English, while the Radical organs, which had been prophesying disaster throughout, tried to explain away their error by declaring that Arabi's stronghold had been opened by a golden key. When the first excitement of the news had subsided, there was a manifest fear amongst all parties that England, having subjugated Egypt unaided, would now pose as the sole arbiter of that country's destinies, and transfer the suzerainty over the Khedive from the Porte to herself. In Germany there was a general expression of congratulation, and the official *North German Gazette* declared that in crushing out the rebellion England had done a real service to European civilisation. Russia, taken by surprise, was less Anglo-phobist than might have been expected, and while remarking that the Egyptian Question had only been solved from a military point of view, and that it now remained for diplomacy to intervene, maintained a carefully reserved attitude, this being doubtlessly due to friendly hints from Germany, and to the prospect that in the coming negotiations she might plead any arbitrary action on the part of England as an excuse for the mitigation of the terms of the ever obnoxious Berlin Treaty. In Italy and Spain, where the press had been gloating over the reported disasters to English arms, and rejoicing at the statement that Sir Garnet Wolseley was



besieged at Kassassin, the news created the most profound astonishment. In Italy the bravery and endurance of the British army and the talent of its commanders, received the recognition due from a military nation even to an enemy, but in Spain the press manifested a far less generous spirit, and took up the cry of the French Radicals that English gold and not English steel had crushed the rebellion.

**Turkey.**—In Turkey, with the exception of the Egyptian crisis, which has been duly detailed above, there has been comparatively little to chronicle during the past twelve months. Prince Bismarck had been gradually acquiring almost a preponderating influence over the counsels of the Porte. Knowing that Germany had little material interest in Eastern affairs, the Sultan was far more ready to take her advice than that of England, Russia, France, and Austria, whom he always suspected of harbouring some interested motive. In Egyptian affairs, Germany frequently turned the scale when the Sultan hesitated between two courses, while in minor matters her influence was scarcely less marked. In financial affairs, as in others, the Porte had solicited the aid of Prince Bismarck, and two Teutonic officials in particular, Wettendorf Bey and Gerscher Effendi, who had been placed on the Commission appointed by the Porte to confer with Mr. Bourke and his colleagues representing the bondholders of France, Germany, Austria, and Italy, were of considerable service in effecting an arrangement between the Porte and its creditors. At the beginning of October, 1881, the Bondholders' Commission was busily striving at Constantinople to achieve some financial settlement, which should combine the maximum of Turkish concessions with a minimum of loss to the bondholders. This task was rendered all the more difficult by the action of Russia with respect to the unpaid war indemnity. The Russian ambassador presented a note reminding the Porte that it was not authorised to dispose of any new source of revenue towards the liquidation of old debts until the indemnity was settled, and protested against the allotment of the Bulgarian tribute towards the payment of the annuity to the bondholders. Here we may remark that the indemnity exacted from the Porte by Russia amounted to £45,000,000 sterling, and that at the Berlin Congress Count Schouvaloff declared, in the name of the Russian Government, that neither would the indemnity be converted into territorial acquisition, nor would Russia in any way interfere with the interests on previous loans. Moreover, at a subsequent meeting, the English, French, and Italian pleni-

potentaries protocolled a declaration that the indemnity would not be permitted to rank as a debt in priority to any other debt whatever contracted by Turkey during the war. These facts must have been forcibly recalled to the Russian ambassador's memory, for his objections of the settlement were ultimately waived. Nevertheless, the Russians were anxious not to be left wholly out in the cold in the general financial settlement, and continual meetings were held between the Muscovite delegates and the financial representatives of the Porte, Wettendorf Bey and Gerscher Effendi.

However, by December, after much discussion and many compromises on both sides, the scheme for the settlement of the Turkish debt was finally drawn up. By this the Porte consented to assign to the bondholders the produce of certain specified taxes, such, for instance, as the monopolies of tobacco and salt, the Bulgarian tribute, the surplus revenue from Cyprus, the tribute from Eastern Roumelia, together with minor revenues. By this all bondholders could count on receiving at least one per cent. interest, and any surplus which should remain after the payment of the dividend was to be divided between rate of interest and the creation of a sinking fund. Should the produce of these revenues, however, exceed a rate of interest of four per cent. to the bondholders and of one per cent. for the sinking fund—in all five per cent.—the surplus would go to the Imperial treasury. The Imperial *Irade* sanctioning this arrangement was signed by the Sultan on December 20th, and in the evening the bondholders' delegates were entertained at dinner by the Sultan, who formally congratulated them upon the successful termination of their labours.

Financial matters apart, the chief incidents of Turkish history relate to the constant struggle with England for supremacy in Egypt, continual petty quarrels with Greece over the new frontier, and to the exchange of compliments between Abdul Hamid and the Emperor William. In December, doubtless owing to the support which he had received from Germany, the Sultan sent a special mission to Berlin to decorate the Emperor with a high order, the Nichani-Imtiaz, which had never yet been bestowed on a foreign sovereign. The mission, which was headed by Ali Nizami Pasha, who had been one of the Commissioners to Cairo, was well received by the Emperor, who moreover telegraphed a warm message of thanks to the Sultan, and, as we shall see later on, replied by sending a German mission, reciprocating the compliment, to Constantinople. This manifest *rapprochement* between the Porte and Germany had no inconsiderable effect in raising the hopes of the Sultan that with Germany's aid, taking into account her

known antipathy to France, and her apparent distrust of the British Government, he might be enabled to withstand the encroachments threatened by those Powers on his prestige as chief of the Mussulman world, and thus regain the authority which he considered due to him as Caliph not merely in Egypt, but throughout Northern Africa. Indeed, after a dinner given to the German Embassy, he is said to have declared to a Minister that the days of tribulation and suffering for Turkey were at an end, and that a brighter epoch was about to open. In pursuance of this policy, impatient to get rid of all foreign interference, the Prime Minister, Said Pasha, suddenly issued a circular regulating the ceremonials to be observed by Turkish officials towards foreign consuls, and a second to the provincial governors, instructing them that in future criminal affairs between the subjects of all foreign nationalities should be judged by the Turkish tribunals instead of by the consuls. These instructions, issued without previous consultation with the foreign embassies, were protested against by them, and finally became a dead letter. The British Minister, however, paid little attention to such manœuvres as these, and continued the even tenor of his way in bringing unfulfilled reforms to the Sultan's mind. Thus, Greece having been pacified for awhile, Lord Dufferin took up the cause of Armenia, and urged the necessity of fulfilling the promise given to the Berlin Conference, in the 61st Article of the Treaty of Berlin, of doing something for this patient and peaceable portion of the inhabitants of the Ottoman Empire. Unfortunately, affairs in Egypt soon became so engrossing, not merely to Turkey, but to England as well, that the poor Armenians are as yet no better for the recommendation of the Powers. In February, a dastardly outrage was committed upon two British officers while out shooting at Artaki, Captain Selby, of H.M.S. *Falcon*, and Captain Grenfell, of H.M.S. *Cockatrice*. Through a misunderstanding between Captain Selby and some Albanian shepherds, who feared for their sheep, the Albanians struck Captain Selby on the head with an axe, and although Captain Grenfell went at once to his assistance, the officers were eventually overpowered and bound. Fortunately, Mr. Wrench, the British Consul, was with the party, and subsequently coming up procured their release. Despite all care, however, Captain Selby died a few days later. Almost concurrently with this, the German mission, under Prince Radziwill, who had come to Constantinople to invest the Sultan with the orders of the Red and the Black Eagle, was being sumptuously entertained by the Sultan. The investiture took place on February 18th, and the Sultan in return made a speech treating

warmly of the friendship of Germany for Turkey, and curiously enough referring with regret to the disturbances in the Herzegovina, "which at present were troubling his ally Austria." At a farewell dinner he also spoke in terms of the highest praise of the German officials, and certainly at that time seemed to consult them in everything, from the reorganisation of the gendarmerie, which it was rumoured at the time would exclude all British officials, save Baker Pasha, to a proposed reform of the customs. In March, finance once again came to the fore, the Council of Bondholders, which had been appointed to superintend the carrying out of the agreement, and of which M. Aubaret, the French delegate, had been chosen president on the motion of Mr. Vincent, the English member, proceeded on March 20th formally to take over the administration of the six indirect contributions which had been allotted to the bondholders for the payment of the proposed annuity. The Russians also pressed for a settlement of the indemnity question, and M. de Novikoff presented a species of ultimatum, once more protesting against certain stipulations in the bondholders' convention, and reminding the Porte that, despite continual assurances, the promised substantial guarantees which had been promised as a *quid pro quo* had not as yet been forthcoming. Mr. Foster, director of the Ottoman Bank, undertook the thankless task of negotiation between the Russian and Ottoman delegates, a task which was complicated by the internecine quarrels amongst the Turks themselves. As usual the Ministry and the Palace party were at variance, and the Sultan still further complicated matters by taking affairs into his own hands without consulting his Ministers. Thus it was not until the middle of April that Mr. Foster succeeded in effecting an amicable arrangement; even then a final wrangle ensued over the question as to whether the books relating to the revenues set apart for the payment of the interest should or should not be examined by a Russian auditor. This point was finally conceded by the Porte. Another difficulty which arose between Russia and the Porte about the same time, was a demand by Russia that her transport ships laden with prisoners for her penal colonies in Siberia should be allowed to pass through the Bosphorus, a permission ultimately and grudgingly given by the Sultan. In May, the continual warfare between the Cabinet and the Palace party came to a head. Said Pasha, the Premier, was "dismissed" by the Sultan, and Abdurrahman Nooredin Pasha was appointed in his place. The new Minister was a devout Mussulman of the old school, and who had been governor of Bagdad. Notwithstanding that Said Pasha assured Mr. Foster that his dismissal

had no connection with the question of the Russian indemnity, a rapid change of policy nevertheless ensued. In a week Abdurrahman Pasha had secured the Sultan's ratification of a satisfactory arrangement, which included M. de Novikoff's stipulations. On May 8th, the convention, which provided for the payment of the indemnity by an annuity of £315,000, was definitely accepted by the Russian delegate. This annuity was secured on the sheep tax of the Vilayet of Aleppo, and on the tithes of the Vilayets of Konieh and Adana and Sivas. A change took place also in the tone of the inquiry which was being made into the murder of Commander Selby, and the absurd plea which had been raised by the Turkish authorities that Captain Grenfell and a seaman named Moore had unjustifiably fired upon and wounded the Albanian shepherds was abandoned, and two months later the trial resulted in the man who struck the blow being condemned to 15 years at the galleys, and the Albanians who began the assault to a year's hard labour.

There is little else of public interest to record in Turkey proper. There was a sharp squabble with Greece with regard to the forcible closing of the post-offices in the annexed provinces, the Porte rapidly retaliating by closing the Greek post-offices in Turkey. Early in the year also, considerable interest was excited by the discovery of a number of English boys in Stamboul, who had been practically enslaved by an Arab chief of an acrobatic troop, known as the Beni Zoug-zoug Arabs. These poor little fellows had been purchased in England from their inhuman parents, and were being cruelly treated and starved by their master. Mr. Littler, Q.C., however, greatly interested himself in their favour, the British authorities interfered, and the children were rescued and restored to England. Considerable stir was made by the arrest of Mr. O'Donovan, the *Daily News* correspondent, who had just returned from Merv, and who, being overheard to speak disrespectfully of the Sultan in a café, was thrown into durance vile, and only released on the intervention of the British Government. Railways have occupied considerable attention. In April the railway convention concluded at the *Conférence à quatre*, by Austria, Turkey, Servia, and Bulgaria, was ratified by the Porte, which then took under consideration the new Servian line, practically provided for by the Austrian and Servian Convention, and the lines of Jamboli Schumla, which would complete the network across the Balkans to the Danube and the Black Sea. Various schemes, also, for railways in Asia Minor were put forward and ventilated, but all such plans as these were hopelessly overshadowed by the

great Egyptian Question. Indeed, had it not been for this, considerable attention would probably have been attracted to the condition of affairs in Arabia, which were most unsettled, the district round Yemen being in a chronic state of insurrection. As a consequence, however, of the Egyptian crisis, and Panislamic leaning of the Sultan, there were some threatened troubles in Tripoli and Morocco, while in Syria and Beyrout, there was serious rioting in August, owing to the mysterious assassination of a pilgrim Mussulman. Thereupon ensued a circular of the Porte, urging the authorities to use great vigilance in the maintenance of tranquillity, this being done on the recommendation, it is said, of Turkey's new mentor, Germany.

**The Danubian States.**—Of the various kingdoms, principalities, and semi-independent states north of the Balkans, Roumania and Servia have mainly come to the fore during the past year. At the latter end of November, King Charles, on the opening of the Roumanian Chambers, made a very bellicose speech regarding the free navigation of the Danube. For some time past there had been a growing feeling in Roumania that Austria wanted it all her own way on that river. The official organs had therefore made a point of attacking Austria, and declaring that her interests were far less weighty than those of England, who, it may be stated, favoured the Roumanian side of the question. King Charles did not mince matters. He declared that the "vital interests of the nation were bound up in that great channel of communication," and that it would be a duty, "not to enter into a combination, the effect of which would be to surrender to a single Power the preponderant influence over the navigation from the Iron Gates to Galatz." He warmly insisted upon the necessity for the absolute freedom of the Danube, at least in Roumanian waters, and then declared that "we are at present, as we shall be in the future, prepared for any sacrifice in order to secure in every respect entirely free navigation." These warlike utterances, and the concluding threat, as may be imagined, created the most profound astonishment, and in Austria, the greatest irritation. The Austrian Minister at Bucharest, Count Hoyos-Sprinzenstein, at once received orders to suspend all personal relations with the Roumanian Government, and the official organs of the Vienna Cabinet demanded an explanation and an apology from the Roumanian Government. This apology was nearly a month in forthcoming, and, meanwhile, in reply to the King's Speech, the Chamber of Deputies announced that it had heard with joy the declaration of the Government, to whom it

promised its whole support in order to secure the "liberty of the Danube, and the Sovereign rights of Roumania from all encroachments." The pressure of the European Powers, however, and of Germany and Russia in particular, proved too much for King Charles, even when backed up by his faithful Deputies, and accordingly, on December 22nd, the Government, in an official note, expressed "in a frank and loyal manner their deep regret for everything in the Royal Speech which may have been considered offensive by the Austrian Government." This apology was duly accepted by Austria, and diplomatic relations were again resumed. The controversy, however, with regard to the navigation of the Danube continued, Austria wished to establish her rule throughout the Danube, while Roumania and Servia were naturally anxious to control the portion which flowed throughout their territory. Thus Austria proposed that attached to the existing European Commission there should be a Mixed Commission, including Austria, Roumania, Servia, and Bulgaria, the presidency of which, however, was to be assumed by Austria. This was rejected by the European commission, and a modified form of it proposed by the French member, M. Barrère.

Servia has signalised the year by raising her Prince to the dignity of a King, and herself to the status of a monarchy. This event was not wholly unexpected, though Europe was somewhat taken by surprise when on March 6th the Skuptschina suddenly voted Prince Milan King of Servia. The *modus operandi* was absurdly simple; the President rose and said, "Gentlemen of the Servian National Assembly, I believe that you will agree with me that the time has now arrived when we should declare our country a kingdom, and our Prince, King of Servia." A burst of applause hailed these words, and the deputies trooped off to the Palace to present the first congratulations to King Milan Obrenovics the First. His Majesty was by no means loath to receive the intimation, which he accepted unhesitatingly. Thereupon the Skuptschina hastened to pass a Bill defining the rights and prerogatives of the sovereign, and the position of the Heir Apparent, while in the afternoon the King publicly received the oaths of the army, and issued a proclamation notifying to his people that he had accepted the kingly title. The political edifice, founded half a century since by Prince Miloscs Obrenovics, he declared had now been worthily crowned. "The Skuptschina," he continued, "has restored the most ancient monarchical throne in Europe," and in a spirited peroration he invoked the spirit of the Dynasty which had occupied the throne of Servia some 500 years before. This step of the Skuptschina and their sovereign

was well received by the European Powers, and King Milan was warmly congratulated by all the foreign representatives at Belgrade, and in particular by that of Austria, who it had been feared would not have been overpleased at the news. King Milan had not enjoyed his newly fledged dignity long before a serious parliamentary crisis occurred. The Radicals interpellated the Government with respect to the loss sustained by the nation by the failure of the ill-fated "Union Général," M. Bontoux having been accorded by the Ministry the contract for the construction of the Servian railways. With regard to the railways in question, a new syndicate had been formed with the help French, Austrian, and Belgian banks, and a new contract had been signed. On the Ministerial refusal to give any information regarding the Bontoux transaction, fifty-one Radical members marched out of the House, and resigned their seats. The session was suspended until the necessary elections should have been held, but on these taking place in May, forty-five of the members were re-elected. The Chamber, however, refused to recognise these re-elections as valid, and coolly declared those candidates who were next in order on the poll to be duly qualified to sit in their places. The Radical members naturally protested against such treatment, and issued a manifesto demanding the impeachment of the Ministry, while several riots occurred in the provinces. Indeed, according to the latest accounts from Servia, there is a disposition on the part of the population to refuse to pay the taxes due in November, inasmuch as they were voted by an Assembly from which more than a third of the members had been excluded. There has, however, been a marked toning down of that Pan-Slavonic outcry which was making Servia so objectionable to Austria, and, indeed, with the exception of Russia, to Europe in general; though whether this moderation is due to her elevation to a new dignity, or to warm and repeated hints on the part of Austria, backed up by the failure of the Crivoscian insurrection, may be left to the judgment of the reader.

In Bulgaria, the autocratic Government established by Prince Alexander, and the high-handed manner in which, with the aid of his Russian officers, he carried that *régime* into effect, have caused a good deal of dissatisfaction. Radical speeches demanding the dethronement of the Prince have been made, brigandage has been rife, and half the country declared in a state of siege. The Pan-Bulgarian agitation has again shown signs of growing beyond control, so that the Prince when in May taking a quiet little tour on the Continent,



thought it wise to go straight to St. Petersburg, and ask the advice of his relative and patron the Czar. The result of this visit was a letter to the Russian Consul-General from M. de Giers, the Russian Foreign Minister, setting forth the wishes and instructions of the Prince, and warning the Bulgarians that if they ranged themselves on the side of the "factious minority" they must no longer count on the support of him whom hitherto they had regarded as their liberator. The Russian Consul-General, it appears, had made himself somewhat prominent in assisting the Liberals in their agitation, which they based upon the fact of the breach of the Constitution by the Prince's *coup d'état*, and their declaration that the Prince and his chosen Ministers had done nothing whatever beyond planning a palace at a cost of £80,000, and bringing about a deficit in the Budget.

In Eastern Roumelia, Aleko Pasha has not been agreeing with his subjects very much better than his neighbour Prince Alexander. As usual, also, he has been quarrelling with the Porte, demanding the surrender of the villages in the Rhodope mountains, which, by the Berlin treaty, were included within the limits of his province. In August, however, Aleko Pasha visited Constantinople, and dined with the Sultan, being honoured with the Order of the Osmanieh, and assured that an immediate settlement should take place of the various vexed questions which were pending.

**Greece.**—To turn to Greece and her politics: these latter, though continually agitated throughout the year, possess little interest for the world at large. M. Coumounduros' foreign policy, never popular in the country, received an emphatic condemnation in the January elections, and on the assembly of the Chamber at the end of the month, the King's speech was received unsympathetically and in dead silence. In March a decided defeat, on the question of electing the Speaker, resulted in the Premier's resignation, and in the formation of a Ministry under M. Tricoupis. At the end of August troubles broke out on her new Thessalian frontier, where disturbances had been for some time brewing at Karali-Dervent—a disputed point in the delimitation. Four points—Karali-Dervent, Nezeros, Kritzovali, and Gounitza—had been duly awarded to Greece by the Delimitation Commission, but Nezeros only had been handed over to the Greeks, the Turks wishing to retain the other positions, and offering an insufficient compensation. Several encounters took place between the Greek and Turkish troops, and it was not until from 400 to 500 men had been killed and wounded, and fresh troops had been sent from both sides to the district, that the question entered into

what might be called the diplomatic phase, and the disputed area was declared neutral until the difficulty should be settled. As this question threatened to develop a serious aspect, and M. Tricoupis had issued an angry circular to the Powers, an informal Conference of Ambassadors assembled at Constantinople on September 24th. No sooner had they met, however, than it was announced that the difficulty was at an end, for Turkey, having a sufficiency of burning questions on hand, had decided to deliver over all the points in dispute.

Montenegro has been so bound up with Austria in her intimate relation to the Crivoscian insurrection, that what little there is to be said of her history will be found in a subsequent chapter. We may mention, however, that on February 2nd a commercial treaty was signed between Montenegro and Great Britain, providing that English goods should be imported duty free, only such taxes being levied as should be necessary to cover the custom-house expenses.

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## CHAPTER II.

WESTERN EUROPE AND THE MEDITERRANEAN :—FRANCE, ITALY, SPAIN, PORTUGAL, AND SWITZERLAND.

**France.**—The past twelve months have been eventful for France, both at home and abroad. The year opened with a greater prospect than had existed since the fall of the Empire, of peace at home under the leadership of M. Gambetta, the acknowledged chief of the great Republican party, and increased *prestige* abroad, both through the campaign in Tunis, which was rendering her the practical mistress of a large portion of Northern Africa, and from her then joint action with England in Egypt in combating the influence of the National party, and in protecting the interests of Europe in that great international highway, the Suez Canal. It has closed with dissension at home amongst the Republicans, who, when brought to the test, were not found sufficiently homogeneous to unite in supporting one of the most universally popular political chieftains whom France has ever seen; and with the mortification of seeing England absolute mistress in Egypt to the utter exclusion of herself, owing to the disability of her legislators to put aside their personal piques and party jealousies, even when so important an issue as her interests in Egypt were concerned. The difficulties of the Tunis campaign and the dissension which reigned amongst the military authorities of the expedition had, moreover, shown France that twelve years of military re-organisation and universal

service had in no way rendered her army fit for service at a moment's notice. Thus, once again, has France not only endured the bitterness of hearing other nations discuss her military shortcomings, but broadly hint that her sudden withdrawal from all intervention in the East was due to pressure put upon her by that modern Mentor of Europe, Prince Bismarck, an allegation which, whether false or true, has only been half-heartedly denied. To turn to our chronicle of events, at the beginning of October there was a comparative political lull after the bitterly fought electoral campaign which had resulted in such an overwhelming victory for moderate Republicanism. All eyes were for the time riveted on Tunis, whence the news of a terrible massacre on September 31st had arrived. After the return of the French troops who formed the bulk of the first expedition, renewed insurrection and hostile raids on the part of the Arabs had compelled the despatch of another military expedition, the object of which was, the capture and occupation of the Holy City of Kairouan. The troops comprising this expedition amounted to over 40,000, and were under the command of General Saussier, whose plan was to advance with 30,000 men in three columns, each from a different base of operations, upon Kairouan. The insurgents, who were said to amount in all to 45,000 combatants, did not show themselves cowed by these formidable preparations. On September 26th they had attacked and routed the Tunisian General, Ali Bey, and on the 31st had perpetrated a massacre at Oued Zergha, a railway station mid-way, about seventy miles on the line between Tunis and the terminus Ghardiamou. This outrage was certainly one of the most cruel and cold blooded which have been perpetrated in modern times. A detachment of Arabs suddenly surrounded the station, murdered the servants and officials, mutilating their bodies and burning them on piles of sleepers saturated with petroleum; the unfortunate station-master, a young brave officer, M. Raumbert, who had gained his Cross at Sedan, being roasted alive. The outrage was discovered by the passengers of a train from Ghardiamou, which had come to a standstill owing to the Arabs having torn up the rails for some miles before Oued Zergha. Horrified at what had occurred, the passengers walked on to the next station, Medjez, where they found that the smoke from Oued Zergha had already given the alarm, and that a detachment of troops had arrived from Tunis. When the soldiers arrived at Oued Zergha they found that the Arabs had returned, had burned everything that they could find, had murdered two wounded survivors whom the passengers above-mentioned had placed in the abandoned train, and had blown up the engine. The news of this outrage excited great

horror and anger in France, even the cool-headed *Temps* exclaiming that every one cries "for a terrible vengeance, no mercy. We must finish with these barbarians at all cost, *aman* (quarter) must not be granted as has been too often the case in Algeria." Amongst the Arabs this massacre, combined with the defeat of Ali Bey, who had been originally ordered to protect the railway during the advance on Kairouan, had the most encouraging effect, and, as could only be expected, the French authorities insisted upon a military occupation of the town of Tunis. A convention with the Bey, Mahomed Sadok, to this effect was consequently concluded, and on October 12th the vanguard of the French garrison, some 2,000 men, entered the citadel, being received with all honour by the Governor and his Staff at the "Gate of Traitors." The inhabitants accepted the occupation philosophically, but the Italian Consul, following his usual policy, protested against the occupation as a violation of the Italian Convention of 1868. It was not until the middle of October that the general forward movement of the French columns fairly began. By this time the French forces had been shaped into something like order, and having once started, the various columns pushed forward with considerable success. The first column, numbering 12,000 men, started from Zaghouan, about eighty miles north of Kairouan, under the command of General Logerot, accompanied by General Saussier; the second, under General Etienne, composed of 6,000 men, started from Susa, thirty-five miles east of Kairouan; the third, under General Forgemol, numbering 8,000 men, marched from Tebessa on the Algerian frontier, 145 miles south-west of its destination. To these three columns were added a detachment of 4,000 men despatched from the north of the Regency to operate with General Forgemol. To General St. Jean was given Ali Bey's task of guarding the railway at Testour, while that Tunisian chieftain and his army were relegated to Zaghouan. Previous to starting, General Sabatier, on the 13th, had had a sharp engagement with the Arabs, defeating them, and inflicting upon them a loss of 800 men. At Susa, General Etienne had had continual skirmishes with the Arabs, who were particularly aggressive in that district. The French now, however, thoroughly aroused, began to use strong repressive measures, and two Arabs having been caught placing a stone on the railway, they were promptly executed, and their heads impaled on the spot where their crime was committed, as an encouragement to others. Moreover, it was announced that the ultimate destination of the French troops was not merely Kairouan, but when that city was duly occupied the troops would march to Gafsa in Southern Tunis.

This announcement by no means pleased either the Bey or his subjects, and indeed the latter were showing considerable restiveness at the prospect of French rule, and in Ali Bey's camp another mutiny broke out, the soldiers declaring that they would no longer fight against their countrymen, being nevertheless ultimately pacified by fair words from the Tunisian Minister of War. Indeed, the troops met with no noteworthy resistance throughout their march; and on October 28th General Etienne, who was the first to arrive, received the surrender of Kairouan without a blow being struck. Two days afterwards, General Saussier arrived with General Logerot's column, and then this Mecca of Western Mahomedan Africa was thrown open to all Europeans, and for the first time in its history its most holy sanctuaries were polluted by the prying eyes of the Giaour. Meanwhile the insurgents had retreated into the mountain fastnesses south of the city, and accordingly preparations were at once made for the southward march upon Gafsa. Thus, on November 11th, General Saussier, with General Forgemol's column, began the march to Gafsa. The pacification of this district was speedily effected with but little resistance, and thenceforward the insurrection may be said to have been merely sporadic. The troops continued to reduce district after district to order; finally it was arranged that the country should be temporarily occupied by 20,000 troops, and that General Lambert should take the chief command of the Tunisian army. Even then the pacification of Tunis was far from complete, and continual raids and skirmishes between the Arabs and the French troops have taken place throughout the year. At the end of August a large body of the insurgents, numbering in all some 15,000, who had taken refuge in Tripoli, recrossed the frontier and submitted to the French authorities. Nevertheless, a large number still held out, and in September sharp encounters occurred in the neighbourhood of Kairouan, in one of which fifty French soldiers were killed. The French, moreover, did not achieve their practical termination of the campaign without having to pay a terrible price. Both the medical service and the commissariat department appear to have been hopelessly ineffective, and this, it was stated, was chiefly due to the bad organisation of the latter. The most heart-rending stories were told of the suffering of the sick and the utter want of hospital accommodation; and even where that existed, of medicines, and even of sheets.

These stories of mismanagement created no little irritation in Paris, and the opponents of the Government had the prospect of bringing a real and tangible grievance against the Govern-

ment on the opening of the Chambers. Not that the most ardent supporters of M. Jules Ferry and his Cabinet expected them to retain office for many days after the new session had been inaugurated. It was known that even if they did not resign beforehand they would only appear in the Chamber to conduct the business until the House should be fully constituted. In fact, Tunisian affairs apart, the one theme discussed by all parties was M. Gambetta and his coming Cabinet. Meanwhile, M. Gambetta had mysteriously disappeared, and was unexpectedly unearthed at Frankfort, whither, the public were duly informed, he had suddenly gone to fetch home a nephew. A report, however, was spread, and at the time obtained credence in the highest quarters, that the coming Premier had gone to Germany for the purpose of a secret interview with Prince Bismarck. Though this was subsequently denied by Prince Bismarck himself, the report was significantly commented upon at the time, and, there is little doubt, strengthened the standing of M. Gambetta as a Premier who was likely to bring peace to the nation. Thus in all moderate circles of the country, M. Gambetta was regarded as a Premier who would not merely head a makeshift ministry and disappear whenever the coalition which had put him into power was dissolved, but as a permanent minister carried to his post by the wish of the greater portion of his countrymen, and who might possibly be as stable as Prince Bismarck had proved himself to be for a score of years across the Rhine.

Thus, when, on October 28th, the Assembly re-opened, and M. Gambetta determined, in order to ascertain the strength of his majority, to take a test vote by standing once more for the Presidency of the Chamber, he at once obtained 317 votes out of 364. It was therefore manifest that M. Gambetta could not further postpone his assumption of the Premiership, and great curiosity was evinced as to the manner in which M. Jules Ferry would be helped out of office. To everyone's astonishment, M. Jules Ferry precipitated matters by himself making a statement on Tunisian affairs, without waiting for that interpellation which it had been prophesied would overthrow him. Ignoring the essentially Gallic adage that "*qui s'excuse s'accuse*," M. Ferry, on November 5th, plunged into a long defence of the Ministerial policy, justifying the expedition by the declaration "that Tunis was the key of our house." As was expected, this statement brought about a general debate; the Ministers were attacked for misleading the late Chamber for electoral purposes, and the military authorities for their extraordinary policy in selecting the troops for the first expedition from all parts of the army, which

was thus practically disorganised. The great speech of the debate, however, was a most able denunciation of the whole expedition by M. Clemenceau. Basing his arguments on official data, he declared that the North African frontier line had been shifted to the confines of the Ottoman Empire, and warned the Cabinet that, when a nation comes in contact with the Porte, it does not have to account to the Porte alone. He deliberately charged M. Roustan with having brought about the intervention of France in support of certain private financial enterprises, and farther declared that the former Chamber and the country had no more sanctioned the Tunis expedition than France had sanctioned, in 1870, the war with Prussia. At the end of a four days' debate, M. Gambetta, seeing that the Chamber was hopelessly at sea as to what action it should adopt, proposed, in order that the debate should not "wind-up with an avowal of impotence," a perfectly neutral order of the day. This, which merely stated that the Chamber was resolved on the integral execution of the Bardo treaty, was voted by 379 to 71. The result of this was that M. Ferry resigned on November 10th, and M. Gambetta was summoned by M. Grévy to form a Ministry. After a few days' delay, M. Gambetta produced his list; but, to every one's surprise, the much-talked-of *Grand Ministère* included no such well-known ministers as MM. Léon Say, de Freycinet, or even Challemel-Lacour, all these statesmen declining with thanks and M. de Freycinet begging off at the last moment, much to M. Grévy's annoyance. M. Gambetta, it appeared, had certainly formed a homogeneous Cabinet, for every member was known to be his faithful henchman; but, unfortunately, with the exception of two members of the retiring Cabinet, MM. Cazot (Minister of Justice) and Cochéry (Posts and Telegraphs), none of the Ministers had ever held high office before. These Ministers were M. Waldeck-Rousseau (Minister of the Interior), M. Allain-Targé (Minister of Finance), General Campenon (Minister of War), M. Gougeard (Minister of the Marine), M. Paul Bert (Minister of Education and of Worship), M. Raynal (Minister of Public Works), M. Devès (Minister of Agriculture), and M. Proust (Minister of Arts), M. Gambetta himself taking the portfolio for Foreign Affairs. The most noteworthy appointment of all these was that of the eminent scientist and freethinker, M. Paul Bert, who but a few weeks back had declared in a memorable lecture that nations receded from religion in proportion as they advanced in morality. His appointment, therefore, as Minister of Public Worship created the most profound astonishment, and in many circles was regarded as a direct insult to the Roman Catholic Church.

Such an appointment at such a moment did far more to shake the confidence of the great mass of the country—the *bourgeoisie*—in the new administration than any subsequent act which M. Gambetta may have committed. It was regarded as a declaration of *guerre à l'outrance* to the whole religious community of France, and the prospect of a bitter religious campaign, which would shake society to its very roots, was not looked upon as a favourable beginning to that era of peace and quietude which it had been hoped the new Ministry would have inaugurated. The composition of the new Cabinet naturally excited much sarcasm on the part of M. Gambetta's opponents and no enthusiasm amongst his friends, nor indeed was the Ministerial profession of faith any the more warmly received when it was given forth in the Chambers by M. Gambetta on November 15th. In this, after declaring "that universal suffrage in the plenitude of its sovereignty had again signified its two-fold resolution to strengthen the Republic, and to surround it with democratic institutions," he announced that the new Cabinet had no other programme than that of France. The nation had demanded, as the essential instrument of a gradual reforming policy, "the formation of a united government, free from all the minor conditions of divisions and weaknesses." M. Gambetta then foreshadowed the chief measures of his policy, the reform of the Senate "by a wisely-limited revision of the Constitutional laws, which should place all of the essential powers of the country in fuller harmony with the democratic nature of our society." Next came the reform of the magistrature, the furtherance of national education, the completion of military legislation, the conclusion of commercial treaties, the insurance by the strict application of the Concordat of respect for the public Powers in the relations of churches with the State, and, finally, the maintenance of order at home with firmness and of peace abroad with dignity. This comprehensive programme was received with marked coldness by the Chambers and by the country. It was manifest by the manner in which he spoke that M. Gambetta counted on a long lease of power, and that by the constitution of his Cabinet he intended to have matters all his own way without contradiction. This assumption of virtual dictatorship created a feeling of distrust throughout the country, especially as it was known that M. Grévy, who was everywhere respected as a man of sound judgment and of the highest patriotism, was by no means at one with the ideas of the young and fiery ex-dictator of Bordeaux. If this was the feeling of the Conservatives, that of the Radicals was not one whit more favourable. For them M. Gambetta's programme did not go far enough. Thus, no sooner had M.



Gambetta finished the reading of his statement than the campaign was commenced, and M. Barodet rose with a resolution for the immediate revision of the Constitutional laws.

Indeed, it was evident from the first that M. Gambetta and his Cabinet were by no means to be permitted that easy time which had been prophesied, and that they would have to incur the most determined opposition from a large portion of the House. Once more was it manifest that a homogeneous majority in a French Chamber was all but impossible. For the first few weeks, however, of its existence, the Gambetta Cabinet experienced but little factious opposition ; people waited to see what the Premier and his followers really intended to do, and what points in their armour were the most vulnerable. Moreover, the Cabinet hardly gave their enemies a chance of attack, for each Minister was busy foreshadowing at the reception of their subordinates the various reforms which he had been set by his chief to inaugurate in his own department. At these meetings big and little changes were announced with equal solemnity ; and, while M. Proust promised the members of the Théâtre Français to urge the abolition of the rule that renders them ineligible for the Legion of Honour, M. Paul Bert, at one of his receptions, made an important declaration of his policy as Minister of Religion, which he concluded significantly by stating that "we look upon the Concordat as the surest guarantee against the encroachment of the Catholic Church, which is always going forward." M. Paul Bert did not long delay putting his precepts into practice. He warned certain bishops who had visited Rome that they had no right to absent themselves from their dioceses without having first obtained the authorisation of the Government. He caused it to be announced that all new prelates would be bound to take that stringent oath to the Constitution ordained by the Convention of 1801. As this oath is historical we give it in *extenso* : "I swear and promise to God, on the Holy Gospels, to remain obedient and faithful to the Government established by the constitution of the French Republic. I promise also to have no dealings, to attend no councils, to carry on no league, either at home or abroad, which are contrary to public tranquillity ; and if in my diocese, or elsewhere, I learn that anything is being concocted to the prejudice of the State, I will inform the Government thereof." He requested the Prefects to furnish him with all details respecting the existing prelates, their attitude, their antecedents, and their character, as compared with their predecessors. He also abolished the post of Director-General of Worship, and set on foot a general reform of his Ministry. As

for M. Gambetta, he gave himself but little rest during this period. He soon experienced one great drawback of his Cabinet of nobodies, namely, that if he was complete master he was also held responsible for every action, however minute, of each individual Minister. Thus his personality was brought more prominently than ever before the public, and the feeling that he intended to act upon his own initiative, and to rule with a high hand, was confirmed and enhanced by his arbitrary dismissal of M. de Normandie, the governor of the Bank of France, and the appointment of M. de Magnin, a thorough-going Republican and an ex-finance Minister. Tunis was the first battle-ground on which he really measured swords with his adversaries. At first he declined to discuss the question, on the ground that the pacification of the country was the first thing to be considered, but ultimately, at the beginning of December, he gave vent to one of his most noteworthy oratorical efforts in the Senate upon the discussion of the estimates for that expedition. The Duc de Broglie opened the debate by a powerful attack on the Tunisian policy of the Republicans, and contrasted "the dissimulation of intentions and facts which the late Cabinet had practised" with the English debates on Afghanistan and the Transvaal, which were models of true patriotism. Alluding to M. Gambetta's condemnation of annexation, in which he had declared his policy to be neither annexation nor evacuation, but the temporary maintenance of French troops in Tunis for the safety of the Christian population, he argued that the present occupation was a virtual annexation. M. Gambetta, turning aside his adversary's allusion to the Senate "as a body threatened by projects of mutilation and invited to commit suicide," declared how necessary he thought the existence of the Senate, and repudiated any sympathy with the inconsiderate and exaggerated attacks of which that august body had been the victims. Turning the tables upon the Duc, who asked why he did not deal with Tunis as Mr. Gladstone had dealt with the Transvaal, he declared that the Transvaal and Bardo treaties were almost identical. As for the losses in the campaign, they had been grossly exaggerated, the number barely amounting to 1,100. The credits demanded were duly voted, but if M. Gambetta had scored a success by his oratory in the Senate, he did not shine in the Chamber, when taken severely to task for having created the new Ministers of Agriculture and Art without having previously solicited the sanction of the Chamber. M. Gambetta's prerogatives, indeed, were the subject of a sharp quarrel between the Gambettist press and the organs of M. Grévy.

The Ministerial journal, the *République Française*, speaking of M. Gambetta, termed him the Chief of the Executive. The *Paix*, the representative of the Elysée, at once retorted that M. Grévy, and not M. Gambetta, was the Chief of the Executive. Thereupon ensued a brisk newspaper war, the Republican journals insisting that M. Gambetta was Chief of the Executive power, and M. Grévy Head of the State. The very existence of this quarrel showed plainly a latent divergence of opinion between the Ministerial and Presidential parties, which augured stormy times in the future.

The Tunis expedition was not only the great parliamentary topic at this time, but it also absorbed judicial circles, owing to a trial for libel instituted by the Public Prosecutor against M. Rochefort, for libelling M. Roustan in the *Intransigeant*. M. Rochefort had roundly styled the expedition "robbery, complicated by assassination," and had declared that the authors were liable to be brought before the bar of the assizes. He accused MM. Gambetta and Roustan of forming an association for the object of "bearing" Tunisian bonds, and then buying them back for a few pence. These two confederates, he continued, had impelled the French Government to intervene in the Regency, and by this they were to pocket £4,000,000. "That is why," cried the ex-editor of the *Lanterne*, "50,000 of our soldiers have gone yonder to die of sunstroke and of starvation." M. de Billing, a gentleman who appears to have been one of those curious unofficial Ministerial agents whom many foreign Ministers find it useful to employ, and equally politic to repudiate, should that necessity arise, was the first witness in support of M. Rochefort. He charged M. Roustan with backing the Bona Guelma Railway and the Tunisian bonds, both of which had been subject to various *coups de bourse*. He declared that he had often heard of M. Roustan receiving bribes, his medium being a M. Elias Massali, who had been appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs when Tunis was placed under French protection, and had been dismissed from the Bey's service on a charge of dishonesty, but who, nevertheless, had since been made Commander of the Legion of Honour. He also spoke of having been intrusted with a mission by M. Barthélemy St. Hilaire, and of having been told that if he could induce the Bey to yield on the railway and Enfida questions, the occupation would not take place. These, and other allegations, which were warmly denied in court by M. Roustan, were repeated by several witnesses, who testified to M. Roustan's intimacy with M. Massali, and with an equally doubtful character, M. Volpera, who had been appointed master of the Tunis Mint. On the other hand, M. Barthélemy

St. Hilaire, M. Waddington, and other prominent politicians, appeared on behalf of M. Roustan. M. St. Hilaire declared that M. Roustan was a zealous and upright agent, and that he utterly disbelieved in the accusations against him. As for M. de Billing, he had never entrusted him with a mission, that gentleman simply having called on him to say that he was going to Tunis in connection with an archæological mission. M. de Lesseps also testified to the high character of M. Roustan, who enjoyed the respect and confidence of the French colony at Tunis. M. Waddington again declared that he had watched M. Roustan's career for twenty years, and had never heard anything to his discredit. M. Roustan went poor to Tunis, and was so still. He indignantly protested against the ordeal thrust upon M. Roustan, and asked who would thenceforth be willing to serve their country devotedly if they were thus exposed to be dragged through the mire. M. Rochefort and his publisher, however, were acquitted, though the verdict was regarded as a protest against the whole Tunis policy of the late government, rather than as any justification of the accusations made against M. Roustan. This latter was undoubtedly made the scapegoat for the misdeeds and for the shortcomings of the government which organised the unpopular expedition to Tunis.

The opening of the year 1882 foreshadowed a troubled political time to France. Not only were the important and almost vital questions, which we have above enumerated, to be debated and settled, but Tunis was even yet far from being pacified; the commercial negotiations with England were causing a bitter controversy between protectionists and free-traders; the Egyptian difficulty was looming in the background, while M. Gambetta, with that obstinate infatuation which with regard to this one point has always distinguished him, intimated through his journalistic organs his determination to bring forward his *scrutin de liste* measure. The existing system of election is *scrutin d'arrondissement*, by which each deputy is elected by a particular district of a Department or County; the system of *scrutin de liste*, on the contrary, is the election of the whole of the members of a Department by the whole of the electors of that Department. It can easily be seen that election by *scrutin de liste* would operate as a blow to the representation of minorities. This system, by which Napoleon III. in a great measure maintained his parliamentary majority, had ever, it may be said, been a favourite with M. Gambetta. He had never forgiven the Senate for having rejected the measure in the previous year, and now, to the horror of his supporters and to the delight of his

adversaries, intimated his intention of asking a newly-elected Chamber to change the method of voting by which it had just been chosen. M. Gambetta, however, was evidently determined to test to the utmost his measure of strength and popularity. Choosing the most dangerous of all battle-grounds, he decided to stand or fall by a principle which he had declared necessary to the political well-being of the nation. He had shown his independence of friends as well as of adversaries by the appointment of M. Weiss, an ex-Minister of M. Ollivier and of the Duc de Broglie, to an important post in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. This step excited great wrath on the part of the "orthodox" Republicans. He paid little attention, however, to the remonstrances of his followers, encouraged by the result of the triennial Senatorial elections on January 8th, when seventy-five of that august body were re-elected, by which the Republicans won fully twenty-one seats. Having thus obtained a clear working majority in the Upper House, he caused the *République Française* to issue a species of ultimatum, plainly ordering the Chamber to choose between the adoption of *scrutin de liste* and M. Gambetta's resignation. The article in question declared that it was not enough for M. Gambetta to be minister, he wished to be the minister of a "self-possessed" democracy. "It is not from childish caprice, or to revenge the rebuff of last June," continued the article, "that M. Gambetta proposes the re-establishment of *scrutin de liste*; he proposes it because he cannot do otherwise without abandoning the programme of his political life." M. Gambetta quickly followed up this manifesto with action. On January 14th, on the re-assembling of the Chambers, M. Gambetta at once detailed his revision scheme from the tribune. These revisionary laws related to both Houses; the lower Chamber was to be thenceforth elected by *scrutin de liste*, the natural corollary "of universal suffrage, the mode which insures the greatest electoral morality, and the greatest independence of national representation." Turning to the organisation of the Senate, the existing system was that 225 senators were elected for nine years by municipal delegates, one being appointed for each commune, while seventy-five were chosen for life by the Senate itself. M. Gambetta, dwelling on the anomaly of large towns, such as Lyons and Marseilles, being allowed but one delegate, and consequently but one vote in the elective council, and therefore possessing no more influence than the smallest commune, proposed that for the future each municipality should be allowed one delegate or senatorial elector for every 500 registered voters. Passing to the seventy-five life senators, he argued that the Chamber should have some

voice in the selection of men representing national interests, and proposed that thenceforward they should be appointed by both Houses, each voting separately, and the votes being mixed together, so that those elected should represent the National College in its entirety. Moreover, as life tenure was inconsistent with democratic principles, for the future such senators would not be elected for life, but for a term of nine years. Then passing to the Budget powers of the Senate, he proposed for the future that the Senate should not be entitled to any vote in financial matters, but only to address a "remonstrance" to the Chamber upon any financial item, which might appear inadvisable. In support of this theory he quoted the English system, by which the House of Lords had no cognisance of the Budget Bill beyond the mere fact of registering it.

The announcement of the much-talked-of revisionary measures was by no means well received by any but the Ministerial journals; the Elysée Press objected to *scrutin de liste*, and most of the moderate Republican organs pronounced such proposals inopportune and superfluous at a moment when both Houses were eminently Republican. Thus it soon became evident that M. Gambetta would have great difficulty in carrying his measures, though no one was prepared for the catastrophe which ensued. The Parliamentary Committee appointed to consider his proposals was firmly opposed to them, and in particular to the restoration of the *scrutin de liste*. They summoned M. Gambetta to confer with them, and thereupon ensued a brisk debate between the Premier and his rival, M. Clemenceau. M. Gambetta and the committee did not part on the best of terms, and the committee reported to the Chamber that, while agreeing with most of the details of the Government scheme, it was opposed to the return to the system of *scrutin de liste*, stating, as its reason, that in this question individual wishes had taken the place of the national will. The Chamber, on January 26th, took the same view, and despite an eloquent and moving address from M. Gambetta, in which he warmly repudiated the accusation of being desirous to betray the Republican party by cherishing the wild designs of a dictator, he told the House that the Government intended to stand or fall with *scrutin de liste*, and to accept no compromise upon that head. The Chamber having negatived a proposition from M. Barodet to revise the entire Constitution, M. Gambetta demanded the rejection of the resolution proposed by the committee, that it was expedient to revise the constitutional laws, thinking that the deputies would not stultify their former vote, and that he would upon this point at least secure a majority. He also demanded the insertion

of a recommendation to consider *scrutin de liste* in the resolution. His strategy, however, was unsuccessful. The Chamber maintained the revision clause of the committee by 282 to 227 votes; rejected his *scrutin de liste* phrase by 305 to 110, and finally adopted the whole resolution by 262 to 91.

M. Gambetta at once placed his resignation in the hands of M. Grévy, and thus, after an existence of barely three months, the "*Grand Ministère*" came to an end, nor, must it be admitted, was it regretted even by its friends. As for the general mass of the country, there was a manifest feeling of relief that such an essential *ministère de combat*, which attacked so many public and private institutions, and threatened a renewal of those parliamentary battles and crises which had so long agitated the country, was defunct. This feeling was enhanced when it was announced that the new Ministry would be headed by M. de Freycinet, and would contain such well-known and trusted names as M. Léon Say and M. Jules Ferry, the former taking the Ministry of Finance, the latter of Public Instruction, while M. de Freycinet resumed the direction of Foreign Affairs, which he had resigned, mainly through M. Gambetta, eighteen months back. The portfolios of the Marine, of Public Works, and of Commerce, were taken by Admiral Jauréguiberry, M. Varroy, and M. Tirard, all old Ministers, the new men in the Cabinet being MM. Goblet, Humbert, Mahy, and General Bellot, Ministers of the Interior, Justice, Agriculture, and War, the Ministry of Fine Arts being once more abolished. During the last few days of their tenure, the ex-Ministers brought forward several of the measures which they had promised to produce to the Chamber. General Campenon had proposed his scheme for army reform, of which the chief features were the reduction of the term of service from five to three years, the formation of a matured army corps for Africa, the establishment of a system of partial mobilisation for special emergencies, and the creation of a corps of fortress artillery. M. Proust had remodelled the management of museums, while M. Paul Bert had been working hard at his measures for once more bringing the Church and Churchmen under strict control. In contrast to this aggressive energy, came the programme, at once eminently conciliatory and pacific, of M. de Freycinet. In his opening utterances he declared himself governed by one essential idea: "to make peace prevail in this country, peace in men's minds as well as in the material order of things, peace abroad as at home." Thus, while recognising the necessity for inaugurating minor reforms, he pronounced decidedly for the postponement of the revision of the Constitution, remarking, sensibly, that no

electoral law could come into effect for three years which affected the Senate, or for four years relating to the Chamber; but the revision of the magistracy, of military service, of the laws of liberty of association, and of national education would be energetically carried forward. This programme was accepted with applause both by the Chamber, which confirmed it by 287 to 60 votes, and the country, and people once more began to prophesy a temporary interlude of political peace and quietude. M. Gambetta retired into private life, and resumed his old task of editing the *République Française*. Popular attention also was taken from the stormy area of politics by the terrible financial panic created by the failure of that huge financial bubble, the *Union Générale*, the circumstances connected with which are discussed in the portion of this work specially devoted to economical and financial affairs.

Rarely had France enjoyed such a complete period of calm as now ensued; Monarchists, Conservatives, and Radicals were singularly tranquil, and yet, as is frequently the case in such circumstances, a good deal of serious work was achieved. Thus a bill was passed restoring to the communes the right of electing their own mayors, who of late had been nominees of the Government, and extending that privilege to all large towns, Paris alone being excepted. This exception created much outcry on the part of the Radicals, but as all moderate minds could at once see the choice of a man who could control an army of 20,000 officials and a revenue of £10,000,000 must certainly be made by the Executive Government and not be left to the caprice of the electors of Paris, rightly termed by the Premier the most excitable and restless people in the world. A bill also was brought forward in March for abrogating the Concordat, and calmly "taken into consideration;" while the bill for Primary Education which the previous year, though passed by the Chambers, had been amended by M. Jules Simon in the Senate, by an addition enacting that masters should teach their pupils their duty towards God and towards their country, was again brought forward. The Chamber had refused to accept this amendment as it wished to make national education purely secular, and to leave all religious teaching to the parents and friends of the children. The bill accordingly once more came up to the Senate for consideration, with the addition expunged. The Senate now, however, was somewhat differently constituted from the Senate of the previous session, having received a considerable augmentation of Republican members, and consequently being far more in harmony with the Lower House. M. Jules Simon, nevertheless, fought hard for his amendment, explaining that he



did not desire any theological teaching, but simply that the school-master should inculcate the old morality of past generations. As an honest man and father of a family he was asked which God he meant. He meant the God acknowledged by all religions and by all spiritualistic philosophies—the God called to witness by the juror and proclaimed by every successive Constitution, even by that of 1793, the formula of the Constitution then being “in the presence of God.” The Republicans of 1848 did not banish God, and the President of the Republic of 1848 swore fidelity in God’s name. He concluded by declaring that a nation losing the idea of God would lose all ideal and be left without a compass. M. Jules Ferry, in opposing the amendment, treated the question from a political, rather than from a philosophical point of view, described the amendment as a brand of discord between the two Houses, and declared that its renewed acceptance would be an irreparable injury to the Republic. The Senate took the same view, and the amendment was rejected by 158 to 116. The Conservatives fought the bill clause by clause ; but it was finally passed by a considerable majority. This bill, which would come into force in October, rendered education compulsory upon all classes, bound parents to make an official declaration as to whether or no they intended to send their children to school, or to have them educated at home. If the former, the particular school must be declared, if the latter, the children must be prepared to undergo a state examination within two years. Next came the question of the Budget, and people busily discussed whether M. Gambetta would resume his position on the Budget Committee and once more take an active part in the political struggle. He did not, however, allow himself to be proposed, and M. Wilson, President Grévy’s son-in-law, who had been gradually coming to the fore in political circles as a common-sense hard-working man, was elected President. M. Gambetta chose to make his appearance in the Committee on the new Military Bill, and in the meantime, together with his followers, was working hard at the reorganisation of the Pure Left party, which he regarded as particularly his own. At the beginning of April there was much talk of his intention to buy up several prominent Paris journals, and in particular the *France*, but these schemes came to nothing and M. Gambetta, as has always been his wont after a rebuff, remained exceedingly calm and cool-headed, and effaced himself politically as much as possible. Nevertheless, it was manifest from the ill-natured and sneering tone which his organs adopted towards the Government that he fully intended to oppose the Cabinet and sooner or later to work its destruction. Another implacable foe, though less dangerous

because more outspoken, was the Clerical party. M. de Freycinet and his Cabinet, without such a flourish of trumpets as that by which M. Paul Bert had inaugurated his anti-clerical crusade, were nevertheless just as determined to curtail the pretensions of the clergy. Since the death of Monseigneur Dupanloup, the renowned Bishop of Orleans, Monseigneur Fréppel, Bishop of Angers, had taken the leadership of the Clerical party and lost no opportunity in the Chamber of annoying the Cabinet on every possible occasion. In this he was joined by the Legitimists, who, when on March 28th the vote for £400,000 for the cost of the Tunis Expedition during the second quarter of the year was brought forward, raised a brisk debate upon it. During the debate M. de Freycinet announced that the troops in Tunis, who had already been reduced from 45,000 to 35,000, would shortly be still further reduced to 30,000, and the Chamber ultimately quashed Monseigneur Fréppel's objections by 376 to 71 votes. Another sharp contest was fought over a bill which permitted a juror, conscientiously objecting to an oath, to promise "on his honour and conscience" to tell the truth, this measure having been rendered necessary by the discreditable scenes which were constantly taking place in the courts of justice, where fanatical Radical jurors, declining to be sworn, frequently caused serious delay in the hearing of a case.

From this time forward until the great Egyptian debate which overthrew M. de Freycinet and his Cabinet, there is very little of international interest to chronicle in political circles. The Irish crisis in England attracted considerable attention and discussion, the general feeling being in favour of stern repression. The *République Française* seized the opportunity, in an article upon English statesmanship, to praise the dictatorial conduct of English politicians, who, it was asserted, "systematically exercised personal power." Mr. Gladstone, Lord Palmerston, Sir Robert Peel, and Lord Beaconsfield, were cited as examples; and this journal, whose professions of faith had hitherto been that the will of the Chamber was paramount, now upheld the theory that the Premier was not the servant, but the controller of the Chamber. These utterances were manifestly not merely intended as an excuse for M. Gambetta's dictatorial spirit when in office, but as an earnest of his future policy should he again step into power. The peasant proprietorship scheme of the English Conservatives also created considerable discussion, Lord Salisbury being warned that England one day might claim the concessions which he was so ready to award to Ireland. As for the assassinations of Lord Cavendish and Mr. Burke, they called forth a chorus of indignation from journals of every shade save the "Intransigent" organs

of M. Rochefort and his fellow-communists. These not merely palliated the "execution," as the *Citoyen* euphemistically termed the crime, but absolutely justified it, comparing England to Gessler, and singing the praises of tyrannicide. The assassins, cried M. Rochefort, "must be sought for among the landlords, who are afraid above everything of being dispossessed. Everything leads to the presumption," he continued, "that millionaires, and not outcasts, organised the Phoenix Park catastrophe; the occasion will of course be taken advantage of to practice redoubled ferocity against the poor Irish."

Early in May the Chambers reassembled, when the first measure of importance passed by the Lower House was M. Naquet's Bill establishing the law of divorce in France. M. Gambetta also made a noteworthy speech in the Conscription Committee, urging that all classes should be compelled to serve equally in the barracks. "The blood-tax," he cried, "is like others; he who possesses the most has to pay the most!" Egyptian affairs, however, now began to monopolise the whole attention of France, with the exception of a curious Ministerial crisis, which arose from the Chambers voting the consideration of a Bill opposed by M. Léon Say, and which was only averted by the Chamber passing a special vote of confidence in him. The attitude of France up to the bombardment of Alexandria has been treated of in the chapter on the Egyptian crisis, and we need only repeat here, that, while M. de Freycinet strove to the utmost to maintain a complete agreement with England, he ever opposed the proposition for Turkish intervention, and, knowing the feeling of the Chamber with regard to the Tunis expedition, feared to go the whole length with the British Government in protecting their joint interests in the East by any but diplomatic action. On the very day of the bombardment of Alexandria, M. Gambetta, in the committee on the Naval Credit which the Government had demanded "to meet the expenses necessitated by the events in Egypt," took the Government to task for its policy of isolation and irresolution. The most serious feature of that policy, he declared, was that England and France, after having acted together at Alexandria in presenting the ultimatum, had parted company, and, if that separation proved definitive, never would France have been in a more serious position. When the question was brought up before the Chamber, however, M. de Freycinet, with his usual caution, assured his hearers that the credit did not imply the sanction of an eventual expedition, but was simply intended as one of the precautions incumbent on the Government mindful of French interests. At the same time, he stated that

France had joined with the other members of the Conference in agreeing on proposing to the Sultan, as territorial suzerain, intervention subject to certain guarantees, thus acknowledging that, in one point at least, his policy had undergone modification. He had further to avow that events had happened which had given France a right to armed intervention in Egypt, and stated that, if Turkey refused to interfere, and England and France were invited by the Conference to carry out European intervention, the Cabinet would be inclined to accept such a mission. From the first his chief thought had been the maintenance of the Anglo-French alliance, which had never once been shaken. While frankly and sincerely desiring this maintenance, however, he likewise desired a *rapprochement* with the European concert. England had invited France to go the Suez Canal with her, and, with the assent of Europe, to watch over the security of navigation in the Canal. An agreement had been come to between the two Cabinets on this subject, and their intentions had been laid before the Government. Upon this, M. Gambetta followed by a declaration that he would vote unreservedly for this money, though inadequate, as being a political vote signifying French interests in the Mediterranean, the rescue of Egypt from mutinous soldiers, and its return within the circle of Western policy. The Chamber having passed this credit, M. de Freycinet had to repeat his arguments before the Senatorial Committee, and then was forced to acknowledge that the Conference had renounced the idea of deputing France and England to act, leaving them to take steps on their own responsibility. Consequently, he declared, he should leave England to act alone, and would confine himself to the protection of the Suez Canal, a question quite distinct from the restoration of order in Egypt. Thus, on July 24th, he asked the Chamber for a further vote of £376,000 for an expedition, if necessary, to protect the Suez Canal in conjunction with England. The expedition was to consist of a landing corps of marines, which would occupy certain points in the northern part of the Canal, while the English troops would occupy the southern side. The landing force, if necessary, was to amount to 8,000 men, 4,000 of whom would be immediately despatched between Port Said and El-Kantara. This proposition was referred to a committee, who reported adversely, and on July 29th, despite an urgent speech from M. de Freycinet, in which he drew a fine distinction between the proposed protection of the Suez Canal and Military intervention proper, and in which he asked how the understanding between England and France could survive a refusal of the requested co-operation, and how French *prestige* would be upheld

if the Ministerial proposals were rejected, promising only to make use of the powers to be conferred if the canal traffic were materially imperilled, to the astonishment of the outside world the vote was refused by a majority of 416 to 75. The Ministry at once resigned, and, as the Chamber had declared in the plainest possible terms against intervention, the naval preparations which had been commenced were abandoned, and France settled down to the position of a practically uninterested spectator of England's action. M. Grévy experienced no little difficulty in getting together a Ministry to carry on the working of the State. One man after another declined the dangerous honour of the Premiership; but ultimately, after nine days' delay, M. Duclerc, an old Republican minister, consented to place himself at the head of affairs, and formed a Ministry as follows:—M. Duclerc, President of the Council and Minister for Foreign Affairs; M. de Fallières, Minister of the Interior; M. Tirard, Minister of Finance; M. Devès, Minister of Justice; M. Duvaux, Minister of Public Instruction; General Billot, Minister of War; Admiral Jauréguiberry, Minister of Marine; M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; M. de Mahy, Minister of Agriculture; M. Pierre Legrand, Minister of Commerce and Public Works, this latter portfolio being subsequently taken by M. Herisson.

A brief programme was duly read by the new Premier, which announced that the Government would be inspired by the policy dictated by the vote of the 29th, with the reservation, however, that if events intervened which appeared to involve the interests or the honour of France, the Cabinet would hasten to convene the Chamber, and submit what measures were necessary. M. Duclerc also declared that the Ministry would strive to bring together and conciliate the various sections of the Republican majority. After a financial bill had been speedily discussed and voted, the Chambers adjourned. Upon this, once more ensued a period of complete political tranquillity, only broken by some disturbances amongst the miners at Monceau-les-Mines, at first attributed to the work of strike agitators, but subsequently proved to have been instigated by Radical politicians, and directed more particularly against the manifest clerical sympathies of the managers. The rioters sacked the church, and then blew it up with dynamite, and took a malicious pleasure in destroying the religious emblems, making the priest a virtual prisoner of war. The soldiers had ultimately to be called in to aid the civic authorities, and to restore order. The Radicals also took a prominent part in the discussion of England's intervention in Egypt, which thenceforward formed the all-absorbing

theme in France. Amongst a certain portion of the press there appeared to reign a perfect Anglophobia, and telegrams reporting events adverse to the British progress were freely concocted and published. The higher class of organs, however, such as the *Temps*, the *Débats*, and the *République Française*, vigorously defended England from the accusation of selfishness, and a desire for conquest, which were so bountifully spread abroad by the more sensational journals.

To turn to Paris, and the social life of France at the beginning of the period which our history embraces, the Electrical Exhibition was the chief topic of the day. This magnificent and well-organised display of electrical appliances was a complete success, not only from a scientific point of view, as being the greatest collection of electrical apparatus of every possible nature which had ever been brought together, not only as exhibiting the electric light in all its phases of usefulness, from the most powerful light-house lamp, to the small household globe, of which the illumination could be reckoned by half a dozen candle power, but also from a financial standpoint, the net profits amounting to no less than £16,000. Passing from scientific to literary circles, there have been an unusual number of vacancies and elections in that sacred assembly of the forty highest geniuses of France known as the *Académie Française*. In December the chairs vacant by the death of MM. Duvergier de Hauranne, Littré, and Dufaure, were respectively filled by MM. Sully Prudhomme, Pasteur, the famous scientist, and Cherbuliez, the well-known novelist. In January, another member, M. Charles Blanc, the brother of Louis Blanc, and a renowned fine art critic and writer died, and it is worthy of note that, as he was also a prominent secularist, and was buried with civil rights, the *Académie* for the first time was represented at a non-religious funeral ceremony. In May, the reception of M. Pasteur was marked by two of the most eloquent speeches which probably have ever been recorded in the annals of that body. M. Pasteur made a noteworthy eulogy on his predecessor, M. Littré, while, however, admitting that he by no means recognised the logic of his Comtist views. He was answered by M. Rénan, who, while equally criticising the Comtist theories, assumed a very different standpoint from that of M. Pasteur. At the reception of M. Cherbuliez, M. Rénan, who was again the orator delegated to welcome the new comer, greeted him all the more warmly for having become a Frenchman in one of the darkest hours ever experienced by France, M. Cherbuliez being by birth a Swiss, but having been naturalised in 1870. Another noteworthy literary episode, was the commemoration of M. Victor Hugo's attaining the

age of eighty, on January the 26th. The Celebration Committee of the previous year paid him a visit of congratulation, and presented him with a model of the renowned Moses of Michel Angelo. In acknowledgment he said, that, while accepting their present, he awaited a still better one, "the greatest," he continued, "a man can receive, I mean death—death, that recompense for good done upon earth; I shall live in my descendants, my grandchildren, Jeanne and Georges." While treating of this veteran *littérateur* and politician, we may mention that in May, he presided at a banquet in honour of an engine-driver named Grisel, who, in 1857, at the risk of dismissal, declined to take a train over a bridge, which a few minutes afterwards was carried away by the flood. For this, he was only then rewarded with that *ultima thule* of a Frenchman's ambition, a decoration. M. Hugo, in his speech, naturally seized the occasion for attributing this man's action to his political faith. "What made this man?" he cried. "Industry!" "What has made this festival? The Republic. Citizens, *Vive la République!*" In artistic circles, one of the chief events was the opening of an international gallery of pictures. In this England was represented by Mr. Millais's "Young Days of Walter Raleigh," and various portraits by Mrs. Jopling and Mrs. Perugini, and the "Baiser d'Adieu" of Mr. Alma-Tadema. The salon contained an even larger number of pictures than were exhibited during the previous year, there being no less than 5,613 objects: of these, 2,722 were oil paintings; 1,328 were water-colour drawings; 886 were sculptures; 51 medallions; 154 architectural plans; and 472 engravings. The medals of honour were awarded to M. Puvis de Chavannes for painting; M. Wattner, for engraving; and M. Paulin, for architecture. The sculpture, as a whole, was considered so mediocre that no medal of honour was awarded. Some excitement this time in literary circles, was caused by M. Zola the realistic novelist, who, in his most recent work, had christened some of his objectionable personages with names of existing persons. One of these, M. Duverdy, a barrister, had been portrayed as an unjust judge, and appealed to the law to compel the author to alter the name of his character. The court gave judgment against the novelist, who, it appears, admitted that he had selected names of persons moving in the circles which he had wished to depict, in order to make his story more realistic. Yet another trial, naturalistic enough even for M. Zola, but of a terrible reality, was that of a husband, Marin Fenayrou, his wife, Gabrielle, and the husband's brother, Lucien Fenayrou, for the murder of the wife's lover, Louis Aubert. The last-named was decoyed by the wife into an empty house at Chatou,

and there is asserted to have been set upon and murdered by all three, his body being subsequently sewn up in a sack and thrown into the Seine ; the accused, brought to trial, were found guilty and condemned relatively to death, hard labour for life, and seven years' imprisonment, but were ultimately granted a new trial, owing to the jury having transgressed some practical point of law. Eventually the husband and wife were condemned to hard labour for life, and the brother was acquitted. In French Protestant circles no little excitement was created in May by the elections to the eight Presbyterian Councils of the French Protestant Church in Paris, under the old system of voting, which had been restored by M. Paul Bert. Napoleon III. had enacted that not only every candidate for the Council must sign a dogmatic declaration of faith, but that every one who wished to take part in church elections must thus qualify himself. The French Protestant church is divided into two sections : the Orthodox and the Liberal ; the latter party declined to sign the declaration, and from that time, until M. Paul Bert's edict, the Orthodox party have wholly governed the Church. The result of the elections was that in the Oratoire District, the Liberals won the day, but in the other parishes the Orthodox influence still reigned supreme.

The great event of the Parisian social year, however, was the opening of the Paris Hôtel de Ville, on the National fête day of the Republic, July 14th. On this day, even the news of the bombardment of Alexandria was thrown into the background by the festivities of the day. There was, of course, a great inaugural banquet, the preparations for which cost £12,000 ; and in order that this banquet should be made as thoroughly representative of all classes of the sovereign people as possible, a private soldier, a fireman, a Municipal guard, and a journeyman printer were asked to the feast, and ostentatiously allotted places. In the provinces, however, the clericals, in several places, hindered as far as possible the celebration of the day. Many of the clergy refused to allow their churches to be decked with flags, and, in some cases, unseemly squabbles took place between the civic officials and the ecclesiastical authorities. The Legitimists, in their turn, held their fête on the Comte de Chambord's "name-day : " the clericals held special services, while the lay partisans of Henry V. gave grand dinners, at which the toast of the King was the event of the evening. On August 15th, again, that old Napoleonic fête day, the Bonapartists held high festival in honour of Prince Victor, their future Emperor, and showed themselves no less enthusiastic for their cause than had been the Legitimists or the Republicans. For warmth of expression and



outspoken opinions, however, the Ultra-Radicals must be awarded the palm. Meetings of ex-Communists and Irreconcilables were held almost weekly, but the two most noteworthy festivals were the anniversaries of the outbreak and of the close of the Commune. At the former, on March 18th, Louise Michel, standing with her back to a blood-red banner, bearing a tribute to the "35,000 victims of the Commune," prophesied the near approach of the day of justice. "Then," she cried, "we shall be merciless, we shall not limit the number of victims; we shall cleave abysses; we have been styled *petroleuses*—we shall again be incendiaries; we shall think nothing of burning down a city." The close of the Commune was commemorated by a great procession to the tomb of the Communists shot in Père la Chaise in 1871. Once again Louise Michel was the leading spirit, and under her inspiration her hearers took "a terrible oath of hatred and of vengeance," an oath of Hannibal, by which they vowed "to hate our tyrants and avenge our dead." In September the Legitimists again had a little demonstration. A deputation from the ever-loyal Vendée visited the Comte de Chambord at Fröhsdorf, and presented him with a banner, on which was inscribed, "La Vendée au Roi." The Comte de Chambord thanked the deputation in right royal style. "Courage and perseverance, my friends," he declared; "events are moving quickly, and the hour of salvation is approaching. Every moment is increasing my confidence in the success of the providential mission which has devolved upon me, and I am ready, whatever betide, to fulfil the sacred duties imposed upon me by my birth." As he bid them farewell, he exclaimed, "*Au revoir, mes amis, à bientôt.*" There is little else to chronicle, save the exhibition at Bordeaux, at which M. Léon Say made a noteworthy speech, and the returns of the census, which were taken on December 18th, 1881. According to this the total population of France amounted, on that day, to 37,672,040, being only an increase of 766,260 since 1876, the increase in the preceding four years having been over 800,000. The population of Paris numbered 2,269,023, being an increase of 14 per cent. since the last census. Lyons came next to Paris, with upwards of 376,000 inhabitants; Marseilles was third, with 360,000; and Bordeaux a bad fourth, with a little above 221,000.

**Italy.**—In Italy foreign affairs have been the great pre-occupation during the past twelve months. First came expressions of the most intense jealousy of France for her Tunisian expedition, and the Italian press was ablaze with indignation at the arbitrary policy pursued by the French in North Africa. As the year

closes there is a record of similar protestations against Great Britain and her action in Egypt, which has excited such an epidemic of Anglophobia as to bring forth strong remonstrances from English correspondents resident in the country. Then again Prince Bismarck's negotiations with the Vatican, and his manifest anxiety that some common ground of reconciliation could be found between the German State and the Papal Church, caused no little uneasiness in Italian patriotic circles which had relied upon Prince Bismarck as their own especial friend and ally. On the other hand, there was great jubilee in all moderate circles at the cordial reception which King Humbert and his Queen experienced on their visit to the Emperor and Empress of Austria at Vienna. The Radical party, and especially that faction whose war cry is ever "Unredeemed Italy," was, it is true, considerably irritated at the prospect of a reconciliation between Italy and her old foe, "Austria, the tyrant." Still, as we have said, moderate minds, who saw in such a reconciliation a prospect of support from the Teutonic Powers in the event of any European entanglement which might ensue, were highly delighted at the expressions of friendship which the visit evoked, not only from the court, but from the more popular organs of Austrian political circles. Moreover, this visit was regarded as a severe snub to the clericals, to whom, indeed, the aspect of the most powerful Roman Catholic sovereign of Europe thus ostentatiously proclaiming his friendship for one whom they regard as a tyrant and a spoiler of churches, was anything but palatable. Again, this cordiality between Austria and Italy was looked upon as a covert threat to France. The harmony which this exchange of courtesies created between the two countries was seriously threatened by certain statements in the Committee for Foreign Affairs of the Hungarian Delegation by M. de Kallay, the Minister for Foreign Affairs. According to certain journals, he is stated to have declared "that the initiative of the royal visit was exclusively due to Italy, and that the Cabinet was not competent to enter into an explanation of the motives which might have led to the journey. This much might have been inferred, as much from the internal condition of Italy as from her foreign relations—that Italy considers an approach to our monarchy as mainly lying in her own interest. As far as we are concerned, we have neither to ask anything from Italy nor to fear anything from her." According to the official reports, however, M. de Kallay had said, "that in spite of the agitation of the *Irredenta* party the relations of Austria with Italy were friendly. King Humbert, when he took the initiative with regard to the visit, wished to

attest these good relations between the two States, the maintenance of which lies eminently in the interest of Italy." Great irritation was caused in Italy by the circulation of the former version of M. de Kallay's speech, and in order to remove this impression both M. de Kallay and Count Andrassy made apologetic explanations in a subsequent meeting of the Delegations, and, moreover, the Austrian Ambassador was especially instructed to assure the Italian Government, not only of his Government's sincerely cordial feeling towards Italy, but also of the great value which Austria attached to her friendship. In December, Italian susceptibilities were once more aroused—this time by Prince Bismarck, who in the heat of a party speech which he made against the Progressists in the Reichstag, held up the Italian nation as a sad example of a monarchy, of which each Ministry was more Radical than its predecessor, and which was on the high road to Republicanism. "The Italians," cried the German Chancellor, "could hardly slip more to the Left without being hurled in the abyss of Republicanism." As may be imagined, these utterances, when coupled with the recent misunderstanding with Austria, excited considerable uneasiness in Italian political circles. Loud protestations were at once evoked from the Government organs, while the Ministry were interpellated on the subject in Parliament. Signor Mancini replied by enlarging upon the excellent result of the King's visit to Vienna, declaring that that visit had been arranged in accord with Germany, who had rejoiced to see Italy drawn closer to Austria. Declining to discuss Prince Bismarck's recent utterances, he remarked that although it was not very easy to overcome the temptation to demonstrate the absurdity of Prince Bismarck's theory that Liberalism must lead to a Republic, any discussion on the subject would be out of place. He would accordingly be silent even as regards the injurious allusion to the Monarchy, "for," he declared, "it would be idle to refute it here, standing as I do in the presence of Representatives of a country which knows no bounds to its devotion to a dynasty united by indissoluble bonds to the people." This declaration, however, far from satisfied the deputies, though Prince Bismarck telegraphed to Signor Mancini thanking him for the interpretation of his words, declaring that there could be no doubt regarding his intentions and sentiments towards Italy, and expressing at the same time his good wishes for the House of Savoy, between which and the Imperial family there existed so many bonds of friendship. The House accordingly gave a symptom of its displeasure by an adverse vote upon the estimates for Foreign Affairs, which was the nominal subject for discussion during the debate; by this a

majority of thirty-nine pronounced a disapproval of the foreign policy of the Government with respect to Austria and Germany.

Taking it all in all, the Italian Cabinet was having a somewhat troubled time. Foreign complications apart, there was the *Irredenta* agitation of the Radicals to contend with, and the noisy outcry of the Republican party, which did not hesitate to organise a disloyal demonstration upon the King's birthday; and more important than all, there was the great and ever-present question of the Vatican. Ever since the insult which had been offered to the body of Pius IX., while being transferred from St. Peter's to its last resting-place at San Lorenzo, Pope Leo XIII. had assumed a bitterly hostile attitude towards the Italian Government. Continual bodies of pilgrims from all parts of Europe arrived to express their condolences with the Pontiff, and to each the Pope pronounced an oration detailing his own grievances, and protesting against the open insults now offered to the Roman Catholic Church in Rome. On October 16, there was a great reception of Italian pilgrims in St. Peter's. This pilgrimage was distinctly organised in reparation of the sacrileges committed on July 13th, 1881, and of the insults and calumnies daily levelled against the Papacy. The reception was held with great pomp in St. Peter's, whence the outside public was excluded, and some 20,000 pilgrims were assembled. The Pope was borne into St. Peter's on his chair of state, surrounded by Cardinals, Bishops, Guards, and the whole paraphernalia of the Pontifical court. After receiving an address from the Patriarch of Venice, the Pope launched forth into a vigorous denunciation of the Italian Government, detailing his sufferings, day by day, as he heard of the meetings held against the Law of Guarantees; of the insults levied against Christ's Vicar in his person; of the formation of anti-clerical clubs, and other acts and efforts of enemies of the Church who sought to banish the religion of Christ and the supreme Pontificate from the land. These deplorable things, he declared, placed before him the alternative of enduring a continual captivity or going into exile. He blamed the Italian Government, which, he said, on taking Rome, had hastened to surround the sovereign Pontiff with guarantees which they had since permitted to fall into disuse, until no longer secure in his own palace, he was outraged in his person and dignity in a thousand ways. This decided language on the part of the Pope, together with an exaggerated importance which had been given to certain rumours of an informal English Mission, of which a well-known English Roman Catholic gentleman—Mr. Errington—was presumed to be in charge, added to the manifest negotiations which were being conducted between

Prince Bismarck and the Vatican, created considerable uneasiness in Italian political circles, as it was feared that Pope Leo XIII. was counting on the assistance of outside powers, and that, consequently, his denunciations were more than the mere remonstrances of a senile ecclesiastic, such as the complaints of his predecessor, Pius IX., were wont to be regarded. On December 8, the Pope once more held high festival in St. Peter's; this time for the canonisation—the first held since 1867—of four new saints—viz., Guiseppe Benedetto Labre, John Baptiste Rossi, Fra Lorenzo da Brindisi (who acted as special Envoy to all the courts of Europe in the sixteenth century to prevent the spread of Protestantism), and the nun Chiara da Montefeltre, virgin and martyr. The ceremonial was performed with great pomp in the large Hall of the Benediction, above the vestibule of St. Peter's. The Pope, in the customary homily, once more returned to his grievances, and lamented that in these unhappy times he had been unable to celebrate the ceremony with all its ancient splendour in the majestic amplitude of the Vatican Basilica. Again, on December 12th, in reply to an address presented by the Archbishop of Prague, he dwelt upon "the sacrilegious and detestable war, whose force and ardour are now directed with redoubled bitterness against this Apostolic see." Rumours began to spread abroad that the Pope had determined to quit Rome, but these, like many others of a similar nature, proved false, though they served as a text for long and violent articles of the organs on both sides. This discussion was fanned into yet a fiercer flame by the Christmas Eve discourse of the Pope to the Cardinals. He declared that his position was becoming more and more untenable; that he had been compelled to celebrate the rite of canonisation in an inner chamber of the Palace without the accustomed pomp, and that notwithstanding insults had been publicly launched against him while occupied in one of the most solemn acts of his Pontifical authority; that the ceremony had been made a mockery and derision; and that, with sacrilegious audacity, mud and filth had been hurled against his person, his authority, and against the new saints then glorified. This violent tone was generally attributed to occult negotiations with Prince Bismarck, which had endowed the Pope with a bold confidence he had not hitherto felt. The controversy raged bitterly for some weeks, the anti-Ministerial papers attributing the Pope's violence to the riots of July 13, which, they asserted, were due to the negligence of the authorities and the cowardice of the Cabinet in fearing to offend the Radicals. Like most controversies, however, it cooled down after a while, and was supplanted in public interest by new incidents and new questions

to be solved. Foremost amongst the former was the attempted sale to a French company of six of the leading Italian papers, the *Diritto*, the *Fanfulla*, the *Libertà*, the *Bersaglière*, the *Italie*, and the *Pungolo*. The negotiations, however, for this too-manifest political stroke fell through, probably owing to the vigorous outcry which it roused amongst the Italians.

To return once more to parliamentary politics, the Chamber, after a long and animated debate, passed the Government proposal for changing the mode of elections to that of *scrutin de liste* by 286 votes against 133. At this time also the Pope and his following apparently realised the fact that their cause would gain more by active work than by passive complaint; thus good Catholics were urged not to abstain, as they had hitherto been recommended, from taking part in the elections, while the Pope himself addressed a letter to the Italian bishops, conjuring them to open their eyes to the dangers surrounding them, and not to keep silence; to increase the action and encourage the work of the Catholic lay societies throughout the peninsula; to protest boldly in favour of the temporal independence of the Head of the Church; to organise and develop the Catholic press at every sacrifice; and to inspire their clergy with a full conception of the difficulties they had to meet. In February, yet another saint was canonised, Fra Umila de Bisignano, once a Calabrian shepherd.

On March 25, the Finance Minister, Signor Magliani, had the good fortune of announcing the most prosperous budget in the annals of modern Italy. He announced a surplus for 1881 of nearly £2,000,000, and stated that the receipts from ordinary sources surpassed the ordinary expenditure by nearly £6,000,000, a great part of which, however, was allotted to the deficiency between the extraordinary expenditure and the extraordinary income. Referring especially to the foreign commerce of the nation, he showed that the imports and exports for the previous year exhibited an increase of trade of more than £4,000,000 above that of 1880. The good financial condition of the country was a guarantee that the abolition of the forced paper currency would be duly carried into effect in accordance with the decree, and that the remainder of the grist tax would be finally removed at the date originally fixed, namely, 1884. The next day but one was another great field day at the Vatican, the Pope creating seven new cardinals, viz., Mgr. Domenico Agustini (Patriarch of Venice), Mgr. Lavigérie (Archbishop of Algeria), Mgr. Lluch-y-Garrica (Archbishop of Seville), Mgr. Francesco Ricci Paracciana, the Pope's majordomo; Mgr. Piétro Lasagni, secretary of the Consistorial Con-

gregation and of the Sacred College; Mgr. Angelo Jacobini, assessor of the Inquisition; and Mgr. Edward M'Cabe, Archbishop of Dublin. The last-named, when in due course, at the close of the Consistory, he received the official notification of his elevation to the Sacred College, made a brief speech to the bearer, Mgr. Riggi, declaring "that the admission of my unworthiness into the distinguished order of cardinals is a new proof of the kind regard which the Vicar of Christ has ever manifested towards the clergy and people of Dublin and of all Ireland, and of which, from day to day, he continues to give still stronger evidences." Cardinal M'Cabe was subsequently installed as protector of the church of St. Sabine. In his homily, the Cardinal alluded to the secular bonds connecting the Vatican and Ireland, and this again was made the chief theme of an address which the Pope, on May 5, made to the members of the Irish colony in Rome who had visited his Holiness to express their thanks for the elevation of Cardinal M'Cabe. On April 24 arrived a visitor of far more political importance. The negotiations with Prince Bismarck had resulted in the re-appointment of a Prussian minister-plenipotentiary to the Holy See; and on the date we mention, that diplomatist, Dr. Schloesser, was formally received in order to present his credentials. The Pope, who gave audience seated on his throne in state, expressed his satisfaction at the diplomatic relations having been re-established, and his conviction that they would continue to be carried on satisfactorily.

On June 2nd an event occurred which overshadowed all Italian politics, clerical and parliamentary—the death of Giuseppe Garibaldi, who on that evening quietly ended his eventful life in his island home of Caprera. He had long been ailing, but the end was not expected until a few hours before he expired. He died, it is said, with the window of his room open, while the sun was setting behind the Island of Corsica. Just before the last a bird alighted on the window-sill and chirped. Garibaldi saw it, and stammered, "*Quando e allegro!*" (How joyful it seems!). The death of the man who will always be regarded as one of the liberators, or as the Italians themselves term them, the re-makers of Italy, created a profound impression throughout the kingdom. In Rome, on the reception of the news, the various theatrical performances were at once stopped; the King telegraphed to Menotti Garibaldi, expressing his grief at the loss sustained not only by the General's family, but by the whole nation. Next day in the Chamber of Deputies, the President, Signor Farini, made a speech in memory of the General, while the Premier, Signor Depretis, at once proposed that the National fête

should be postponed, that a state funeral should be accorded to the deceased, and that a yearly pension of £400 should be granted to his wife and to each of his five children. These measures were adopted unanimously not only in the Chamber, but in the Upper House, while the deputies decided to adjourn for a week, and to assist in a body at the popular demonstration in Garibaldi's honour. By his will, however, Garibaldi had ordered that his body should be cremated, and had given the most minute directions to this effect to his medical attendant, Dr. Prandina. In a particular spot in his island home he had directed a pile of timber to be erected; on this was to be placed an iron couch, and upon that his body, dressed in the well-known red shirt. The popular feeling in Italy, however, was against the proposed cremation, and it was warmly urged that his body should be brought to Rome and interred in the Pantheon. After much consideration the family consented to a compromise, namely, that he should be buried provisionally in Caprera. Accordingly, on June 9th, after the body had lain in state for some days, the funeral took place. The Duke of Genoa on the part of the King, a number of Ministers, deputies, members of the municipalities of the chief Italian towns, the Presidents of the Senate and the Chamber, together with a host of Italian notabilities, attended as mourners. The coffin was borne to the grave by some of the survivors of the famous Thousand of Marsala. Numerous speeches were delivered over the provisional grave, Signor Farini, the President of the Chamber, terming him the "guardian angel of Italy," and Signor Crispi comparing him to Leonidas. Rarely, indeed, has the aspect of a nation been presented thus unanimously and genuinely mourning the loss of a patriot. In Rome, on the Sunday following, there was a grand funeral procession, the chief feature being a large car drawn by eight horses, bearing a colossal bust of Garibaldi, on whose brows Italy was placing a wreath. Still, amongst such unanimity of grief, there was much dissatisfaction expressed by the immediate followers of the General that his last wishes with regard to the cremation of his body had so utterly been disregarded. Even now there is an uncertainty as to what will be the ultimate destination of his remains, many still urging that it is not yet too late to fulfil his last wishes.

To pass on to the chronicle of our history: when Parliament re-assembled the question of the Assab Bay convention occupied political circles. The Italians had wished to establish a colony on the East Coast of Africa, and had consequently made a beginning by founding a settlement at Assab Bay, a small port situated in a northern part of the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, in the Red Sea.



This territory was bought from the chief of that district, in 1869, by the Italian Rubbatino Company, from whom the Government now desired to acquire the territorial rights. Ten years later the Italian flag was officially hoisted there, and since that time the Italians have been busily colonising the town. As, however, the territory belonged to the Khedive, a convention with that potentate was necessary, but in the terms of this convention the British Government suggested certain modifications, and for some time it was found difficult to come to an agreement. Finally the treaty was drawn up, and accepted by all parties. It recognised the sovereignty of Italy over Assab, but limited the extent of the territory, specified that the settlement should be of a purely commercial character, and not predestined for military purposes, nor fortified to serve as a military port. This prohibition, however, did not affect the right of constructing defences against any possible attack from the natives. Moreover, Italy agreed to comply with the existing convention between England and Egypt for the suppression of the slave trade on the African coast. The convention was duly passed by the Chamber, with only one dissident, Signor Lorenzo, who considered that according to democratic principles the pleasure of the Assabians should have been consulted, and a plébiscite taken. The Senate subsequently passed the bill by 39 votes to 32.

In Genoa also there was a great fête on June 23rd in honour of the unveiling of the monument to Mazzini. An enormous crowd witnessed the procession, which comprised 800 political and social societies, and occupied two hours in passing before the monument. The great event in the provinces, however, was the celebration of the 600th anniversary of the Sicilian Vespers at Palermo on March 31st. There was a great procession to the Church of the Holy Spirit, outside the town, where the first blow was struck which led to the massacre of the French on March 31st, 1282, and a hymn, composed expressly for the occasion, was sung amidst the greatest enthusiasm. Numerous speeches were made, the most noteworthy of which was undoubtedly that of Signor Crispi. In this he explained the reason why the anniversary had never previously been celebrated. "In 1482, two centuries after the event, Sicily had become a Spanish Province; in 1582, Philip of Spain was king; in 1682, Charles, the last of the Austrian line, was sovereign; while in 1782, Ferdinand III. was reigning. Sicily, therefore, plunged for five centuries in darkness, had lost all she had conquered through the Vespers." "We owe it," he continued, "to the great French Revolution that the people began to feel the need of liberty, and then arose the true con-

ception, which was not that of the Guelphs under submission to the Papacy, nor of the Ghibellines ruled by the Emperor, but a Constitutional Monarchy. The Sicilian Vespers is not meant as an offence to other nations, but as a reminder that we shall know how to sustain our rights against any who may attempt to assail them." Although some 500,000 persons were present, and the greatest enthusiasm was exhibited, no disturbance whatever occurred, and there was a general feeling that the celebration of the anniversary was in no way intended as a hostile demonstration towards France. General Garibaldi was represented by his son Menotti, but sent a characteristic manifesto, praising Palermo for her historical deed, and once more denouncing the Vatican in unmeasured terms, declaring that thence "benedictions were sent to the mercenaries whom, in 1282, thou didst drive away with so much heroism." The harvest in Italy has been good this year, and the vintage, particularly in the north, far above the average. It is discouraging to note, however, that brigandage is still rife in the south, but the authorities deserve some credit for the energy with which an assailant of an English naval officer, Captain Bosanquet, of H.M.S. *Northumberland*, who was attacked and robbed of his watch near Cagliari, was arrested and brought to justice. In the autumn, north-eastern Italy was visited with terrible floods. In September, continuous rains swelled the Adige, which overflowed and carried away two bridges. Whole tracts of country were submerged, trees washed away, and much damage done in the villages, the flour mills and whole of the crops being laid waste. Verona became a huge lake, and communication was cut off from Venice. Every part of Italy sent contributions of food to the inhabitants, but a dearth is feared during the winter. No such catastrophe has befallen Verona since a like misfortune 100 years ago. [Both Pope and King sent liberal contributions towards the relief of the sufferers, and the latter, accompanied by his brother the Duke of Aosta, and the Minister of Public Works, at once visited the scene of the disaster, while large detachments of soldiers were told off to repair the damages. In conclusion, we may give the results of the census taken on December 31st, 1881; by this, Naples is the most populous city of the kingdom, possessing 493,115 inhabitants. Next comes Milan, with 321,839, and then Rome, with 300,467, Turin with 252,832, and Palermo with 244,991.

**Spain.**—The year in Spain began with right royal festivities. First, on October 8th, there was a meeting between King Alphonso and the King of Portugal at Valencia de Alcantara, whither the two sovereigns had gone to open a new railway connecting the two

countries. King Alphonso throughout his journey from Madrid received a most enthusiastic ovation from his subjects. The interview between the two kings is stated, as is invariably the case with all such royal interviews, to have been most cordial. They proceeded together to Cacères, the last station on the Spanish frontier, where the new railway was formally opened, and subsequently attended that national sport, a bull-fight, and, of course, dined together, and drank toasts to each other, and to the maintenance of cordial relations between their respective countries. On his return to Madrid King Alphonso was invested on October 11th with the Order of the Garter by the Special Mission, which, under Lord Northampton, had been sent for that purpose by Her Majesty. The Investiture was conducted with all due ceremony, the Embassy being conveyed from their hotel to the palace in six of the ancient historic royal coaches, each drawn by six horses, and accompanied by six grooms on foot in the quaint costume of the last century. The Ambassador, in announcing the object of his mission, stated that Her Majesty had commanded him to express her sentiments of most sincere friendship to King Alphonso and his Queen, sentiments all the more expressive for the remembrance of the ancient alliance of Spain and England, and of the glorious battle-fields where the soldiers of both nations had fought together on the soil of the Peninsula. The Queen wished to give, on this occasion, a public proof of her desire to be still more closely united in friendly relations, which have so happily and long existed. The King made a suitable answer, fully participating in Her Majesty's feeling "to draw closer the ties of that unalterable friendship which has so long existed between Spain and England." The Investiture then took place with all due ceremony. This mark of Queen Victoria's esteem for her King gave great satisfaction in Spain, for King Alphonso has been growing year by year in popularity, a fact due to his personal qualities as much as to the material increase of prosperity which Spain was experiencing under his rule. The finances were being placed in something like order for the first time for many years, commerce was reviving, the provinces were gradually being tranquillised, and acts of brigandage were growing less frequent, while not only was Spain bettering her own internal affairs, but there were manifest signs that the outside Powers of Europe were once more beginning to look upon her as a factor soon to be taken into consideration in the discussions of International questions. Thus an influential group of Democrats suddenly announced their intention of leaving the Republican party, and of giving their adhesion to the Monarchy, while expressing the hope that the King would some day give the

nation the Democratic liberties which it enjoyed under the Constitution of 1869. A proof of the marvellous improvement in Spanish finance was afforded by the financial statement of Señor Camacho, who, for the first time for many years, presented to the country a balanced Budget—the annual expenditure for 1882–3 being estimated at £31,305,968, and the revenue at £31,319,809, thus showing a surplus of nearly £14,000—announcing at the same time the desire of the Government to come to an immediate arrangement on a basis of compensation, and not of composition with the bondholders. Thus he proposed to issue 4-per-cent. bonds at the rate of 85 per cent. in place of the existing 6-per-cent. bonds, stated that he would wish to arrange for the conversion into 4-per-cent. stock of the entire State debt, and clearly intimated that the general conversion would be upon the basis of the privilege debt conversion now accomplished. This announcement created great satisfaction in all circles, as it was manifest that any improvement in the national credit would be of the highest possible benefit to private interests. The Government, however, did not escape attack and criticism in the chamber, where there was an energetic discussion, not only on the financial propositions, which were bitterly attacked by the Conservatives, but also on the reply to the royal speech; the late Premier, Señor Canovas del Castillo, making a vigorous onslaught on the home and foreign policy of the Sagasta Cabinet. This last debate was not concluded until November 16th, when the government carried the whole House with them, and gained a signal and important victory of 280 votes to thirty-three. In his final speech Señor Sagasta, while eulogising the existing Liberal government, declared that his policy was one of conciliation, and intended to attract to a Constitutional Monarchy all the diverse political elements which hitherto had distracted the country. He specially alluded to the formation of the new Democratic Monarchical party, which he stated he welcomed with open arms. To return to finance, the Budget committee, which was presided over by Señor Moret y Prendergast, the leader of the new Democratic Monarchical party, having approved of Señor Camacho's financial propositions, they were referred to full discussion in the Chamber. Meanwhile, another subject of international interest had arisen. An English company had purchased some very large territorial grants, which had been ceded to Mr. Alfred Dent, of Hong Kong, by the Sultans of Brunei and Sooloo in North Borneo, and a charter had been granted by the British Government to the company in question to this territory, to which Spain claimed a prior right by treaties concluded with the Sultan of Sooloo between 1851 and 1878. By these,

after each of his wars with Spain, that potentate recognised the supremacy of Spain over all his supposed dominions. Thus, the announcement that North Borneo was to be officially settled by the British, called forth an energetic protest from Spanish political circles. The question was brought forward in the Cortes by an interpellation of the Government by a private member, Señor Canamaque; he declared that Spain had enjoyed exclusive sovereignty over the Sooloo islands since the seventeenth century, and that her sovereignty over Borneo dated from 1521. The Minister for Foreign Affairs, the Marquis de la Vega de Armijo, replied that the Spanish Government had protested against the British occupation, and that no Power had rights superior to those of Spain on the northern coast of Borneo. The Conservatives, however, who had been in office when the matter first arose, defended themselves through the ex-Minister of the Interior, Señor Francisco Silvela, by protesting that according to international law it was not sufficient merely nominally to take possession of a barbarous country, but to obtain any valid title it was necessary to prove that actual jurisdiction had been exercised in the country in question. It was impossible to deny the right of the British Government to adopt the course which had been followed. The protest, nevertheless, was sent to the British Government, but there, with a courteous reply refuting the arguments of the Spanish Government, the matter ended. This, however, was the beginning of another of those periodical attacks of Anglophobia which Spain has so frequently suffered. The ever open question of Gibraltar was once more prominently brought to the fore, while, later on, England's action in the Egyptian Question aroused the most rabid ravings from the so-called patriotic portion of the Spanish Press.

After two months of absolute political quietude, the Cortes reopened, and political circles devoted themselves afresh to Señor Camacho's financial proposals, but more particularly to the changes in form of taxation which the Minister, who was warmly inclined to free trade, wished to introduce; he was anxious to relieve the onerous customs duties, recouping himself by enhanced levies upon landed and mining and industrial property. These proposals, as may be imagined, were by no means favourably received by the large protectionist party, which had hitherto held sway in Spain. Unfortunately, also, the opposition was not confined to Parliament. One of the new measures was a bill to ratify the new Treaty of Commerce with France, which made noteworthy concessions with regard to the duties on textile fabrics. In the manufacturing districts of Catalonia, Valencia, and Aragon

great excitement was created by these proposals; workmen paraded the streets raising seditious cries, and numerous manufactories were closed. Barcelona was placed in a state of siege, and the agitation, fanned by the political adversaries of the government, grew apace; the shops, factories, and counting-houses were closed, and enormous crowds walked about denouncing the new duties and the French Treaty, which, they declared, would absolutely ruin Spanish manufacturers, and reduce their workmen to starvation. In many districts the military were called out, and fired upon the crowd; hundreds of arrests were made; numerous deputations from the affected industries came to Madrid, and forcibly set forth their grievances at public meetings, held under the joint inspiration of the Conservatives and the Protectionists. Notwithstanding all this agitation, Señors Sagasta and Camacho held firmly to their colours, and the Cortes continued calmly to discuss the Ministerial measure, and this, moreover, in a favourable and sympathetic tone. Their position was also manifestly strengthened by the fact that the Custom House returns for March were the most considerable ever known, showing an increase of one-twelfth over the corresponding month of the previous year. This condition of things lasted for a month, but on April 23rd the debate came to an end, and the government secured an even larger majority than had been expected, and carried the treaty by 235 to 58 votes. The only noteworthy Ministerial utterance was that of the Home Minister, Señor Venacio Gonzales. This pointed towards eventual compensation to the injured provinces. Declaring that Catalonia ought not to be protectionist, he announced that, "once united with us in reforms, if she fears the competition of foreign manufacturers, let her ask more favourable terms for the introduction of raw material, and she need never fear competition." Catalonia, however, showed herself by no means pacified by these vague declarations. There were renewed disturbances in the towns, and in many quarters the payment of the new taxes was refused. However, the agitation gradually subsided, and the proposed arrangement with the foreign bondholders once more became the chief parliamentary topic. During the debate, Señor Camacho, in a reply to a protest from the late Conservative Minister of Finance, Señor Cosgayon, that the terms offered were too high, urged that the honour of the country, and justice to their creditors, demanded that the Cortes should make the sacrifices which his arrangement involved; the country was bound to make compensation, as far as might be, for the concessions required from the creditors. This speech had its due effect upon his hearers, and on April 28th the bill was duly passed—the government re-

ceiving a vote of confidence of 171 to 34—being subsequently, as was also the French commercial treaty, approved by the Senate.

In Portugal, beyond the visit of the King and Queen of Spain, there is nothing of international interest to record, and the only other country of the European seaboard of the Mediterranean which has attracted any attention has been the Principality of Monaco, against whose gambling-tables there has been renewed agitation in both Italy and France, though the intense jealousy which has existed between the two nations has prevented either government from taking active steps to abolish one of the greatest plague-spots of Europe.

Switzerland is not usually a country to which much political interest of an international character is attached; but the opening of the St. Gothard Tunnel is an event which has more than an ordinary commercial bearing. The new route is the most direct from Germany to Italy, and it is a significant fact that the capital has been subscribed in Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. The construction of the line, moreover, was looked upon as a rebuff to France, which would lose the monopoly of the Transalpine traffic, which it had hitherto enjoyed by means of the Mont Cenis Tunnel. The works, which were commenced in 1872, were practically completed at the close of last year, and on November 8th the first carriage journey from end to end of the tunnel without interruption took place. In January the tunnel was opened for goods traffic, but the official opening of the whole line, from Lucerne to Milan, did not take place till May 24th, when great festivities were held in both those towns. Even the inaugurative ceremony was made a species of informal political demonstration, as only Germans and Italians, including German and Italian Ministers and eight members respectively of the German and Italian parliaments, were officially invited to the proceedings. The French were left out in the cold, as France had ever shown herself most hostile to the undertaking, and, as they were not invited, it was considered that it would be a breach of international courtesy to invite the representatives of any other nation. On the evening of May 22nd there was a grand banquet at Lucerne, when M. Bovier, the President of the Swiss Federation, drank to the health of the Emperor of Germany and the King of Italy, and of the three nations, Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, "who had been united by the accomplishment of this great work." Next day two trains, conveying 13 Germans, 308 Swiss, and 29 Italians, accomplished the journey in twelve hours, being received with great enthusiasm at Milan, where there was

the usual grand banquet, at which Prince Amadeus warmly drank to Switzerland and Germany, and to the continuation of the "most amicable relations which now exist between the three nations." The distance of the entire line is about 150 miles, and, in all, there are 56 tunnels; of these, 27 are to the north and 28 to the south of the great tunnel, which is a little over 9 miles long, and takes 23 minutes to traverse, connecting the villages of Göschenen and Airolo, and passing nearly under the summit of the Kastelhorn. The total cost of the railway has been £9,500,000.

During the past twelve months Switzerland has been visited by an unusual share of earthquakes, storms, and fires, and, of the former, no less than twenty-one occurred in December alone. In October there was a violent shock, followed by a thunderstorm which wrecked several vessels on the Lake of Brienz, while, at the end of last year, the village of Elm was partially destroyed by a landslip, and further threatened with complete annihilation by the fall of the nearest peak, the Risikopf. After much consideration, it was decided to attempt a bombardment of the mountain, and, small shot failing to dislodge much rock, a cannon was dragged up and brought to bear on the peak, but without the desired result. Ultimately, in June, the remaining portion of the Risikopf gave way, and fell over the *débris* of the original landslip. In January another landslip occurred in the Black Lütschina Valley, on the road to Grindelwald, and overwhelmed a small hamlet. In February, the church of Rapperschwyl, in the canton of St. Gall, one of the oldest churches in Switzerland, was burnt down. Two villages also, Baetterkinden and Oberhofen, in the Bernese Oberland, have been destroyed by fire. Numerous lives have been lost in Alpine climbing, the most noteworthy being as follows:—Two Italian students, supposed to have lost the path in the snow in the Nüfenen Pass on their way to Canton Valais; Professor Balfour, with one guide, on the Fresnay glacier, at the foot of the Penteret, while trying to ascend the Aiguille Blanche, a virgin peak of Mont Blanc, where his body, together with that of the guide, still remains, attempts to recover them having failed; Mr. Penhall, with the guide Andreas Maurer, on the Wetterhorn; Dr. Gobat, and two guides, who started from Zermatt for the ascent of the Dent Blanche, their bodies being found on a glacier on the side of the valley of Herens; George Schenkler, a German student, who, with three companions, attempted a difficult ascent on the Great St. Bernard without a guide, and, getting separated during a fog, fell over a precipice and was killed; and Herr Rutti, of Berne, a member of the Swiss Alpine Club, who tried to climb the Wilde



Frau, in the Bernese Oberland, and, while trying to descend a wall of rock, down which he had lowered his friend, Herr Rutti fell and fractured his skull. A successful Alpine ascent was made in August by Mr. Graham, of New College, Oxford, who succeeded in reaching the Aiguille du Géant, a peak of the Mont Blanc range 13,156 feet high, previously deemed impossible. In February a mass of rock fell from the summit of the Rothrisi, and swept away a forest above Ennenda; while, later in the year, two small boats, with eight students, were lost on the Lake of Geneva. In August violent storms did much injury in the Canton of Fribourg, where even trees were uprooted, while the village of Lachen, on the Lake of Zurich, was nearly destroyed by a waterspout, which washed huge stones down the mountain. On September 12th heavy snowstorms swept over the mountains, and continued for two days, leaving snow to the depth of four feet, and causing the death of flocks of sheep pastured on the heights, many sheep which had been grazing on the steeper slopes being carried away and killed by avalanches. Such inclement weather is almost unprecedented; the passes have been blocked, and traffic over the mountains generally obstructed. According to statistics published by the Federal Bureau, the Swiss population in the middle of 1881 was 2,856,424.

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### CHAPTER III.

#### THE EASTERN POWERS : GERMANY, RUSSIA, AND AUSTRIA.

**Germany.**—Although the alliance between Germany, Russia, and Austria is officially presumed to be defunct, the numerous interests which these three great nations have in common will fully justify their combination in one chapter. Their very jealousies have something in common. Russia, apprehensive of being swamped by the Teutonic element on both her German and Austrian frontiers, Germany and Austria equally fearful of the Slav populations gaining the upper hand; while these two latter Powers, though apparently such good friends, have yet many slumbering differences, which now and then show signs of once more bursting forth. During the past twelve months, however, comparative cordiality has reigned between the three Powers. Austria and Russia, it is true, exhibited considerable distrust of each other with regard to the Herzegovinian rising, but this, with the complete success of Austria in the disturbed provinces, speedily subsided, and, with the exception of the all-absorbing Egyptian

question, each nation has been chiefly occupied with its own internal affairs. To begin with Germany, the history of the past year has been chiefly concerned with the bitter struggles, on the one hand, of Prince Bismarck with his Parliament, and on the other with negotiations more or less successful with his old adversary, the Vatican. In October, 1881, Prince Bismarck was straining every nerve to obtain a majority in the elections which were then taking place for the Imperial Reichstag, or Parliament. So, on the other hand, were the Liberals; and rarely has a more determined electoral campaign been fought, or a larger comparative number of electors brought to the poll. Neither side spared either energy or forethought to secure success; and Prince Bismarck, aided by the Conservatives and by the Ultramontanes, thanks to the prospect of a reconciliation with the Vatican, made a further bid for the Socialist vote by his cry of "Economic Reform and State Socialism." The Socialists, however, as also the great mass of Liberals, "feared the Greek and the gifts he brought;" with characteristic shrewdness, they distrusted the offers of a statesman who had ever shown himself desirous of centralising all possible authority in the Government—practically himself—and naturally suspected that his theory of State socialism was mere State despotism in another form. With Professor Mommsen at their head, they accused the Prince of wishing to curb individual freedom of action, and by his subsidiary propositions, such, for instance, as the abolition of annual Parliaments and of yearly Budgets, to gather all the reins of power into the hands of a virtual Dictator, so as to completely crush the independence of Parliament, and thus of the people. Still the elections, it was expected, would prove a triumph for Prince Bismarck, if only from the junction of forces between the Conservatives and the Ultramontanes. This expectation was not fulfilled, and the elections, on October 27th, showed that the country utterly disapproved of Prince Bismarck's measures. The Conservatives and National-Liberals, who might be reckoned his immediate supporters, lost ground, and though the Clericals were slightly strengthened, the Opposition party was considerably reinforced, and his most determined antagonists, the Progressists and Secessionists, received formidable accessions of strength. It was manifest, also, that no one party possessed an independent majority, there being altogether twelve different factions in the House, to wit—United Conservatives, Clericals, National-Liberals, Secessionists, Progressists, Nondescript-Liberals, Poles, Alsace-Lorraine Protestors, the Non-Monarchists, the Social Democrats, the Guelphs, and the Danes. Practically, however, these factions ranged themselves in five distinct parties, and these,

at the close of the supplementary elections in November, were calculated to stand as follows :—The Conservatives, 85 ; the Ultramontanes and Centre Party, 112 ; the Left (Progressists, National-Liberals, and Secessionists), 140 ; Poles and Alsace-Lorrainers, 31 ; and the Social Democrats, 13. The success of the Socialists was most marked, particularly in the great towns ; thus, in Berlin, although their press was gagged, their meetings prohibited, and even their bills tabooed, their candidates obtained respectively 18,979 and 13,377 votes, against 19,030 and 18,974 votes polled by their successful opponents, one of whom by the way, was a Liberal and the other a Progressist. The result of the elections naturally caused great rejoicings amongst the Liberal party, whose organs significantly remarked that the solution of the question would now lie neither in the resignation of the Chancellor nor in Parliamentary dissolution, but in the adaptation of the Government policy to the new relationship of parties. As for Prince Bismarck's own organs, they at first betrayed symptoms of discouragement, and even hinted at the probability that the Prince might send in his resignation, declaring that he was tired "of being a butt for the slander, the malice, and the recrimination of a population of forty-five millions." Politics in Germany, however, with Prince Bismarck at their head, are far different from those of any other Parliamentary country in the world. The adverse vote, it was well known, was not directed against the Prince personally, but against certain measures. Such, for instance, as the Workman's Assurance Bill, and the State Tobacco Monopoly, which he had striven to force upon the nation in the teeth of the most pronounced Parliamentary and popular opposition. Thus, even the most Bismarckian journals did not long persist in holding out the threat of such a contingency, and soon devoted themselves to announcing that the Premier would rely for his majority upon a combination between the Conservatives and the Ultramontanes. The greatest curiosity naturally attended the opening of the Reichstag on November 17th, and wide speculation was put forward as to the line of policy which the Imperial message would shadow forth. No one, however, was prepared for the utter absence of any symptom whatever of conciliation ; all the obnoxious bills were re-introduced, the prolongation of a Parliamentary and Budget period, the Accident Insurance Bill, the Tobacco Monopoly Bill, and a supplementary measure for the organisation of Benefit Societies ; the speech emphatically pointing out that social evils are not to be remedied by repression alone, but rather by the concurrent and positive promotion of the welfare of the working classes. The Em-

peror, the message announced, "would look back upon all successes with the greater satisfaction if he could bequeath to the Fatherland new and lasting guarantees for the continuance of peace at home, and to the necessitous a more secure and generous measure of that assistance to which they have a claim. People whom age or infirmity has rendered incapable of earning their living are entitled to a greater degree of State provision than they at present enjoy." The chief remaining utterances of the message referred to the proposed treaty for the incorporation of Hamburg with the German Customs Union, the flourishing condition of the Budget, the peaceful state of foreign politics, and to the meetings of the Emperor with the Emperor of Austria and Emperor of Russia, which it declared "were the expression of the close personal and political relations which unite us with the sovereigns so closely bound to us by friendship, and Germany with the two mighty empires on her borders; these relations, founded as they are on mutual confidence, constitute a trustworthy guarantee for the continuance of peace, to secure which the policy of the three Imperial courts is with one accord directed." The practical endorsement of Prince Bismarck's policy, and the absolute ignoring of the popular vote expressed in the message, did not tend to improve the relations between the Liberals and the Premier; nevertheless, at first it seemed as though the Prince was about to secure an actual majority, for a Conservative, Herr Von Levetzow, was elected President or Speaker by a Conservative Clerical majority, while his immediate substitute, Freiherr Von Franckenstein, was chosen by the same combination; a Conservative also being elected the second Vice-President. It was soon made evident, however, that this majority was but transient on the Budget being brought forward, which, by the way, was a most favourable one, showing a surplus of £750,000. Prince Bismarck, having been keenly criticised with regard to his economic policy, and particularly with regard to the bill compensating Hamburg for the loss it would sustain in effecting its customs incorporation with the rest of the Empire, burst forth into one of his characteristic orations, and roundly rated the Deputies for their opposition, as though they were mutinous troops who had questioned the orders of their officers, rather than Parliamentary representatives of a Constitutional country. The question of Hamburg was for the nonce left in the background, save that he took as a text for his sermon the accusation that he had applied stringent pressure upon that once Free City, to consent to its self-effacement. He told them plainly that he had thought himself warranted in quickening its conscience by the

application of legitimate pressure. He reminded them that there were very few States which entered the German Union of their own accord. With considerable emphasis he told them how he had created the German Empire by three great wars, and after these had guided it past great dangers, especially those resulting from mighty menacing coalitions. He argued that a number of responsible Ministers would only tend to loosen and disintegrate the Empire, and then, pursuing his favourite theory, protested that if a Chancellor who did everything under a conscientious sense of his duty, and shrank from no effort to continue his national task, found himself unduly hampered and thwarted by factions and parties, then he must say that he would regard the Government as a much stronger and surer pledge than Parliament, for the preservation and promotion of German unity. He demonstrated how, had not Prussia succeeded in the Austrian campaign, he would have been regarded as a scapegoat and a criminal, and as a comrade said to him on the battle-field on re-entering Berlin, the old women would have beaten him to death with broomsticks. Again, had the French war ended in disaster, "the flippant, adventurous, and ambitious Chancellor" would have fallen a victim to hatred and persecution. Later in the debate, however, with somewhat inconsistent modesty, he denied that he sought to establish a personal dictatorship. Next day he once more repelled the imputation of absolutism, and claimed to be a strict observer of the Constitution. He would always undertake to be responsible for the policy of the Emperor, but could lay before them no measure which His Majesty had not signed. Indeed, he served Germany in the person of her Monarch, rather than a "pinch-boot" (as he scornfully termed the Progressists') Parliament. Reverting to the English Constitution, he said that system was all very well as long as there were only Whigs and Tories, but when there were as many as three or five parties, what could be done with it? The conduct of affairs in Germany was in the hands of the Emperor, and the Chancellor was the Sovereign's responsible adviser, and so he would continue to be. With regard to this argument, the genuine feeling of the House was expressed in the retort ventured upon by Herr Rickert, that the Hohenzollerns had no liking for the domination of major-domos; for it was felt that if Prince Bismarck had in days gone by emancipated the Germans by his policy, he was now forgetting that the Germans were emancipated, and that consequently they would naturally wish to have a word in the management of their own affairs. On November 30th Prince Bismarck spoke yet again, this time in reply to an interpellation by Professor Virchow, on the negotiations with the Vatican. This speech clearly evinced the

desire of the Government to conciliate the Ultramontanes by foreshadowing reconciliation with the Papal Court. He declared that the Prussian Budget would include a charge with a view of rendering impossible direct relations, and that as the grounds of the former displeasure with the Vatican had vanished, the German States now stood in the most amicable relations with the present tenant of the Papal Chair. However, the relation between German Roman Catholics and the Vatican regarded the individual State Governments more than the Empire, but should Imperial State interests require such a step, an Imperial representative would be appointed. These utterances drew down great professions of satisfaction from the Clerical leader Dr. Windthorst, and equal protestations from the Progressists of the danger to Liberalism and civilisation of a Clerico-Conservative coalition, through their spokesman Professor Virchow, protestations which were vigorously replied to by Prince Bismarck. As on the previous day, he justified his inconsistency in changing his policy and allies, and stated that his anti-clerical action in 1874 was due to the persistence of his Ministerial colleagues in introducing the obnoxious Civil Marriage Bill. The amicable tone adopted by the Chancellor in treating of the relations with the Vatican, and the promise which his utterances held forth of an ultimate reconciliation, impressed people with the idea that the "Kulturkampf," or religious struggle, might be considered at an end, and that the much-talked-of Clerico-Conservative majority, as a reward for such concessions, would assist Prince Bismarck to carry the measures upon which he had so set his heart. These prophecies, however, as we have said, were quickly falsified. From this time to the end of the year the debates presented a series of wrangles over the various measures, and the funds for that pet scheme of the Chancellor, an Economic Council, were completely eliminated from the Budget by the rebellious Deputies.

In November the Emperor had been seriously indisposed; on his recovery he received the Special Mission which had been despatched by the Sultan with the decoration of the order of the Nichani-Imtiaz, despatched doubtless in gratitude for the support and sympathy which it had pleased Germany to bestow upon the Porte during the past year. In addition to Turkish affairs, much public attention was bestowed upon French politics, more particularly since the assumption of office by M. Gambetta. To the Germans, who had not forgotten the "Young Dictator" as the apostle of the "war-to-the-knife" policy, which so prolonged the war of 1870, and who keenly remembered his more recent hints respecting the

restoration of the annexed provinces, his name was synonymous with a hostile policy on the part of France. Thus all parties joined in the most scathing sarcasms on the "political nobodies" and "problematical creatures" who had been selected for his Cabinet by the "Dauphin of the Republic." Great regret also was expressed at the consequent resignation of the French Ambassador, the Comte de St. Vallier, who was both a favourite with Prince Bismarck and universally popular in Berlin; the new French minister was M. de Courcel, who had been the director of the political department in the French Foreign Office. Coming back to royal circles, the Crown Prince of Germany's 50th birthday was celebrated with great festivities on Oct. 18th, and the Crown Princess' 41st birthday on Nov. 21st. In December their third daughter, Princess Sophie, suffered from a mild attack of diphtheria, and in the same month their second son, Prince Henry, started for a five months' tour through the south of Europe and Egypt. In November the Grand Duke of Baden was taken seriously ill with typhoid fever, and his condition became so serious that the direction of Government business was handed over to the Hereditary Grand Duke. On the 12th he appeared in a dying condition, and took leave of his family, but that day was apparently the most critical, for he subsequently rallied, and gradually improved towards convalescence.

The new year opened with great festivities in honour of the 75th anniversary of the entry into the army of the Emperor. Another noteworthy event of the day was the appointment of an assistant to Marshal von Moltke, who, having passed the age of 82, had begun to feel the strain of work and responsibility which his position as chief of the largest and most advanced army of Europe entailed upon him. Count von Waldersee, a Prussian nobleman, who had distinguished himself in practice by good military service, and in theory by writing the only complete work on the Danish War, was nominated to the post. The most startling incident of the new year, however, was the sudden publication, in the official *Reichsanzeiger*, of a rescript issued to the Prussian Parliament by the Emperor as King of Prussia, and which bore for its text the Constitutional right of the Monarch to conduct the Government and policy of Prussia in accordance with his own discretion. "It is my will," authoritatively stated the monarch, "that both in Prussia and in the Legislative Assemblies of the Empire, there may be no doubt entertained as to my own Constitutional right and that of my successors to personally conduct the policy of my Government, and that a contradiction shall invariably be given to the

doctrine that the inviolability of the king, or the necessity of a responsible counter-signature of my official acts, deprives them of the character of royal and independent decision." Having thus plainly enunciated his doctrine of monarchical independence and absolute responsibility for any policy which he may choose to direct his Cabinet for the time to adopt, he proceeded to remind Government officials that they were bound to obedience by oath, and that, while far from willing to restrict the freedom of elections, he expected from these officials that, in view of their oath of allegiance, they would either support the Government policy at election times, or at all events refrain from hostile agitation. This remarkable document, which was countersigned by Prince Bismarck, created the most profound astonishment in all circles. It was generally regarded as a reply of the Chancellor to his opponents in the Reichstag, and in particular to the protestations which had been made in that assembly against his habit of continually dragging the personality of the Emperor into the heated atmosphere of Parliamentary debate. Such an autocratic declaration of monarchical independence in these constitutional days seemed even in Germany out of harmony with the times; it sounded more like an utterance of one of the old emperors than of a ruler of the nineteenth century. Moreover, the covert threat to officials, thus practically ordered to support the Government, whatever that Government might be, in the face of their political opinions, roused a feeling of indignation even amongst the most official-ridden of the most bureaucratic country in the world. In Parliamentary circles these utterances were regarded with undisguised irritation, nor was this lessened by a speech which Prince Bismarck made on the re-assembling of the Reichstag, when replying to a question as to whether the Government intended to amend existing factory legislation, he plainly avowed that he intended to carry his State Socialist schemes against the will of both Parliament and people, and reminded politicians of his plan of campaign when the great battle of army organisation was fought in 1862. Matters, however, had greatly changed in twenty years, though the man and the monarch had remained the same; and, notwithstanding the Imperial rescript and the bold declarations of the Minister, it was felt that a conflict between the Emperor and the Chancellor on the one part, and the Parliament and the nation on the other, would neither add to the dignity nor enhance the stability of the German Empire. Thus, though Prince Bismarck worked hard to secure the success of his proposals, even he did not dare to put into force those extreme measures by which he won his Parliamentary victories in days of yore,



A more acceptable topic, however, formed the theme of discussion both in the Reichstag and the Prussian Landtag, namely, the lightening of the anti-clerical laws, which had formed the great battle ground of the Kulturkampf. In the Prussian Diet, Prince Bismarck applied not only for a continuation of the law of 1880, which endowed the Ministry with discretionary powers in respect to administering the May laws, but also proposed that the King and the Cabinet should be still further empowered, so that, when it should be judged fit, bishops legally deprived of their functions could be recognised, and full dispensations from the tests prescribed by the May laws might be accorded. In the Reichstag also, Dr. Windthorst, manifestly by consent of the Government, proposed and carried a motion by 223 against 115 which abrogated the law of 1874, prohibiting the Roman Catholic Clergy from exercising their ecclesiastical functions without the authorisation of the State. These signs that the Kulturkampf was drawing to an end were received with considerable satisfaction, and they were still further confirmed by an item in the Prussian Budget, which apportioned £4,500 for the salary of a minister to the Vatican, the bill stating that "since the withdrawal of the Imperial Mission, a conciliatory Pope had been appointed, and that consequently the reason for the suspension of diplomatic relations had ceased." A yet more pleasing item was the announcement of the more flourishing condition of the Prussian finances, which exhibited a surplus of nearly a million and a half sterling, the greater part of which was derived from the working of the railways bought by the State. The official world, however, were not quite contented with the announcement that the long-looked-for rise of salaries could not yet be made, though this might be rendered possible by the "further development of indirect taxation by Imperial Legislation," an ingenious mode of impressing the deputies that it would be advisable to pass the much-opposed Tobacco Monopoly Bill as soon as possible. On January 24th occurred one of the most remarkable field days in the stormy annals of the German Parliament, and one especially to be distinguished by yet another powerful and dictatorial harangue from Prince Bismarck. It had been felt that sooner or later the Imperial rescript and the constitutional theories must be made a subject for Parliamentary debate; accordingly, on the third reading of the Budget, Professor Hänel, one of the most noteworthy of the Progressist leaders, energetically attacked the bases of the principles laid down in that document, once more regretting that the person of the monarch had been dragged so often by their leading statesman

into debate, as though to cover his responsibility. He declared that the decree infringed their Constitutional rights. The true position of the King was protected by their love, and the manifesto could only mar it. Parliament was not only warranted in judging whether the rescript interfered with its rights; it was also bound to do so, and condemned the manifesto accordingly. The speaker applauded the system of Ministerial changes according to the exigencies of the time, and praised the saying of the late King of Bavaria, "I will be at peace with my people." As for Government functionaries, no official was entitled in any way to bring his influence to bear upon electioneering matters; the whole manifesto was a great danger to the position of the monarch, both as King and as Emperor. To these criticisms, Prince Bismarck, in his most defiant manner, declared that the rescript aimed at no creation of new rights, but only at guarding those already in existence, scoffed at the theory that the King reigned but did not govern, which seemed to be the ideal of Progressist orators, and at the definition set forth by M. Taine that a king was a simple honorary president appointed by the Legislature, Prince Bismarck declared that such a political formula applied to Prussia would soon reduce its Monarch to the position of a mere majordomo. Passing to Ministerial responsibility, he insisted that the signature of the King, and not of the Minister, was the main point in a decree. The Kings of Prussia had always regarded it as their strict duty to be what Frederick the Great called "the First Servant of the State." Inside the Cabinet, the King commanded and the Minister obeyed, and if not willing to do so, they were free to retire. Warmly repudiating the charge of cowardice in sheltering himself behind the person of the King, he reviewed the history of Germany for the past thirty years, and declared that had the King not been master, Germany would have had neither army nor Reichstag.

We have treated these speeches somewhat at length, because they illustrate an important point in the German Constitution. In Germany the Reichstag or Parliament has not the right of introducing measures, but simply of debating and of approving or vetoing them. It cannot, therefore, initiate legislation, nor, indeed, can it practically overthrow an obnoxious Prime Minister. The Emperor in Germany is not the Constitutional Monarch, according to the British theory of such a sovereign; as Prince Bismarck said, "he governs as well as reigns." It is he actually who is the real Minister-President, his Ministers being but obedient subordinates to carry out what policy he may choose to dictate. Thus, if a Minister differs with the sovereign, he resigns, but he counts a

Parliamentary rebuff, when received in the execution of a monarch's will, as an annoyance, but by no means as a cause for retiring from the conflict. Of late years the Liberals holding to the letter of the Constitution have vainly endeavoured to inaugurate an era of Ministerial responsibility, not simply to the sovereign, but to Parliament, as a chosen representative of the nation. Prince Bismarck's outspokenness, backed up by the unmistakable tone of the Imperial rescript, have shown them that as long as the Emperor and his Chancellor live, there is little prospect of a Cabinet being formed in accordance with the present Parliamentary majority. After a storm, politically as well as meteorologically speaking, comes a lull, and the stormy sittings of the Reichstag were succeeded by peaceful debates on the measures before the Deputies; moreover, the aspect of foreign affairs was beginning to grow more threatening. The prospective intervention of England and France in Egyptian matters began to attract serious attention; while the extraordinary speeches of General Skobelev created general uneasiness, for one of the greatest dangers which Germany has to apprehend from the outside world is an alliance between France and Russia. This uneasiness was greatly increased by a noteworthy speech which the General made when receiving a deputation of Servian students in Paris at the latter end of February. As he previously had virulently attacked Austria, he now vehemently denounced Germany, and declared that foreign influences were to blame for Russia not having always fulfilled her duties as a Slav Power. "We are not masters in our own house," he cried; "the foreigner is everywhere and everything in Russia, and, from his baneful influence, we can only be delivered by the sword. And shall I tell you the name of the intriguing intruder?—it is the German. I repeat it, and entreat you never to forget it—the German is the enemy. A struggle is inevitable between the Teuton and the Slav; it cannot be long deferred. It will be long, sanguinary, and terrible, but I hold the faith that it will terminate in favour of the Slav." We shall treat further of these utterances below, but we may here state that the effect of them in Germany was to cause a great outburst of indignation. The whole unofficial Teutonic press teemed with angry protests, while the official *North German Gazette* tried to calm the general indignation by declaring that the pronunciamientos of General Skobelev had excited an undue attention. "The private views of a gallant soldier on European politics," it was declared, "are of as little interest to us as the opinions of able diplomatists about cavalry-saddles or cartridge-pouches. General Skobelev is a *beau sabreur*, but this is no reason for attaching more weight to his political opinions than to those

of any other brave soldiers. As for their military aspect, there would be time enough to discuss that after learning the judgment of Russian civil and military circles." Despite, however, these official nonchalant declarations, communications on the subject were made to St. Petersburg, and it needed not only the recall of General Skobelev and the official repudiation of his opinions, but an autograph letter from the Czar to the Emperor of Germany to restore harmony between the two nations. This incident, moreover, created a still farther distrust of France as a possible ally of Russia, and rendered the idea of her undertaking any active intervention in the East wholly repugnant to German official circles. Thus, when M. Gambetta fell, there was general rejoicing, and there is little doubt when the history of Europe comes to be fully written, that it will be found that Prince Bismarck exercised a powerful influence upon the French policy in Egypt, and that it was practically at his instance that the co-operation of England, which at one time seemed so imminent, so utterly collapsed. England, Germany did not fear. Prince Bismarck had once before recommended her to take Egypt when she could get it, and any forcible action upon her part would lend countenance to further absorption of Eastern territory by her allies, Russia and Austria. It is a noteworthy fact that no sooner had France announced her intention of standing aloof from all active operations, that Germany no longer officially opposed England's policy, and even advocated her right to protect interests which, to her, were all-important.

Another burning topic was the course of the negotiations between Prince Bismarck and the Vatican. At first all seemed to go smoothly, and the appointment of the author of the "May Laws," Dr. Falk, to a Government post, by which he was compelled to resign his seat in Parliament, was regarded as another sign that the Government seriously intended to effect a reconciliation with the Papal Curia. Herr Von Schloesser, after a preliminary visit to Rome to pave the way, was despatched thither with full credentials as Prussian Minister to the Vatican. The Prussian Government gave further proof of its conciliatory mood by gradually filling up the various vacant sees, and in particular those of Breslau and of Paderborn. At the end of April also the Prussian Chamber passed the May Laws Amendment Bill, their decision being speedily confirmed by the Upper House. Nevertheless, the negotiations at Rome manifestly hung fire, for the Chancellor, it was evident, looked upon the Pope as merely the head of the Roman Catholic Church, and not as a sovereign of a foreign State. Thus ere long a change took place in the tone of

both the Government and the clerical press, and at the beginning of August it was stated that the Chancellor had decided to defer putting the recently-passed ecclesiastical relief laws into action until a better agreement was in prospect with the Vatican. The clericals, moreover, proceeded to open hostility, and the newly-appointed Bishop of Breslau, who had been considered an ecclesiastic of a mild and conciliatory character, ordered, under pain of anathema, those priests who had been appointed by the State to immediately lay down their offices. On the other hand, it was at once pointed out by the Liberal press that any prelate who threatened an ecclesiastical punishment in such a case rendered himself liable to heavy fine and imprisonment. Representations to the Vatican produced no effect, but rather otherwise, for the Ultramontane press burst forth with renewed tirades against the Government, and the Bishop of Breslau followed up his former step by forbidding his priests to consecrate any marriage between a Roman Catholic and a Protestant which had been previously celebrated by a Protestant pastor. Thus at the present moment there seems every prospect of a vigorous resumption of the Kulturkampf.

Yet another religious difficulty has been the continuation, though it should be said in a much diminished form, of the anti-Semitic crusade which had caused so much agitation in the previous year. Early in the year the Crown Princess and the Court ostentatiously attended a theatrical performance of *Nathan the Jew*, especially organised under Jewish auspices, while the anti-Jewish faction have disagreed among themselves. The Court Pastor Stöcker, who has so prominently taken the lead in the anti-Israelitish movement, supports that movement on religious grounds. On the other hand, Dr. Henrici advocates it purely and simply from a national point of view, declaring that Jews are not fellow-countrymen, but foreign parasites who should be got rid of at any cost. These two Jew-baiters, nevertheless, planned an anti-Semitic congress in September at Dresden, at which they abused the unfortunate Israelites to their hearts' content.

To return to Parliamentary matters, the first session of the Reichstag came to a close at the end of January, having accomplished nothing but voting the Budget and deciding upon the erection of a new Parliamentary building. Nor, indeed, did the Prussian Diet prove itself much more energetic; the six remaining private railway lines were, it was decided, to be bought up, and to be transformed into State lines; the Bill making better provision for the widows and orphans of the higher class of State servants was passed, as also the May Laws Amendment Bill, to which we have

above alluded. This accomplished, the Chamber adjourned, not to meet again in its present form, as the elections for a new Diet would take place in October. The Reichstag having re-assembled in May, at once commenced a debate on the Tobacco Monopoly Bill, which, while rejected by Prince Bismarck's pet Economic Council, had been recommended for consideration by the Federal Council. The Reichstag, however, hostile as ever to Prince Bismarck, ultimately rejected the measure by 276 votes against 45, despite a passionate harangue from the Prince. In this, while speaking on the obvious intention of the Radicals to reduce the military estimates, he denied that it gave him any pleasure to maintain a huge army, at the same time he assured his hearers that the millions of bayonets of their neighbours pointed to the centre of Europe as to a magnet. "Our geographical position," he declared, "will always make us the object of our enemies' attention." Passing to speak of the evils of party factions, he complained that it was becoming more and more difficult for the Chancellor to rule with the Parliament. Quoting the instance of "my colleague Gladstone," he pointed out that formerly it was easy in England to govern with a Parliament as long as there were two, and only two, parties—Whigs and Tories—who had both an interest in the greatness of England. But in that country, too, government had become more difficult and the mechanism more unmanageable by the appearance of the Catholic and Irish party." Once again he quoted England, and this while advocating a Protectionist policy. Dwelling on the fact that all Protective nations are to a certain extent well-to-do, and that other nations are always raising their duties, he stated that England only had discarded them after having become a strong and muscular champion, who could challenge any one. England in this respect was a full-grown child. There is little more to chronicle in Parliamentary circles, save, indeed, the resignation of Herr Bitter, the Minister of Finance, on account, it is said, of differences with the autocratic Chancellor, being subsequently succeeded by Herr Scholz, Under Secretary of the Treasury. The personal popularity of Prince Bismarck was curiously contrasted with the political hatred with which so many of his adversaries regard him, by the cordial congratulations which poured upon him on September 23rd, when he completed the twentieth anniversary of his assumption of the Prussian Premiership, a post which he has held without a break since 1862. Friends and foes alike joined in warmly acknowledging the enormous services which the great statesman had rendered during the past score of years to the Fatherland. Other internal political subjects have been the eternal Brunswick succession question, which, if we are to credit

Dr. Windthorst, the ex-Minister of the late King George of Hanover, shows signs of approaching an end. The Socialist troubles, as may be inferred from the prominent vote given in the general election, have continued. There have been several noteworthy Socialist trials, while the Government has in no way ceased its measures of vigilant precaution, and the minor state of siege is still in force at Berlin and Hamburg. Still, this does not allay the general popular discontent with the Government; and in no way is this rendered more manifest than in the unceasing flow of emigration to the United States, which continues unchecked despite all the efforts which the Government have made to control it. To take an instance—in the month of April alone 27,000 Germans left their homes to seek their fortunes in the new world.

On March 22nd the German Emperor completed the eighty-fifth year of his age. The occasion was celebrated with enthusiastic festivities, the Emperor holding all his usual receptions. The most remarked was a deputation from the Central Conservative Committee, to whom he declared, in reply to the address of congratulation, that the present times were exceedingly serious. "Who," he asked, "could be safe when an autocratic sovereign" (the late Czar), "and a sovereign embodiment of a people's will" (President Garfield), "had fallen victims to revolutionary assassins?" Referring to his rescript of January, he stated with satisfaction that it had been received with approval by the country, as he had thought it necessary to remind it once more that the Crown was in Prussia. The Emperor in April was again attacked by indisposition, but speedily recovered. At the beginning of August he went to Ischl, where he spent two days with the Emperor of Austria; and on September 6th to Breslau, for the grand autumn manœuvres. At Breslau he was received with the utmost enthusiasm, and, with the Crown Princess at his side in the uniform of the Death's Head Hussars, began the great military manœuvres of the year by reviewing the Fifth Army Corps. For three hours he sat in the saddle under a burning sun, and yet, we are told, at the close of the parade he looked as fresh and vigorous as his youngest officer. During his visit to Breslau the Emperor disappointed the expectations of the anti-clericals by not only not administering any rebuff to the aggressive bishop, but even displaying a conciliatory attitude towards this new Ultramontane obstructive. Towards the middle of September the Emperor went to Dresden, to be present at the manœuvres of the Saxon army; there he was entertained with great and enthusiastic hospitality by the King and Queen. Other Court items have been an accident to the Empress in August, when she

slipped, fell, and sprained her ankle, being compelled to keep a recumbent position for several weeks. Also an accident to the Emperor's brother, Prince Charles, in June, who within three weeks of completing his eighty-first year fell and broke his left thigh-bone. On May 7th a third direct heir to the German Imperial throne was born, in the person of a son to the Prince and Princess William of Germany. The christening took place with great festivities on June 11th, the Princess Victoria, the young sister of the father, handing the child to the Emperor, who presented him to the clergyman, the name being announced as Frederick William Victor August Ernest. Amongst his sponsors are Queen Victoria and the Prince of Wales, the Czar of Russia, the Emperor of Austria, King Leopold of the Belgians, and King Humbert of Italy.

Apart from the Egyptian Crisis English affairs have attracted more than usual interest. The attack on the Queen excited a general outburst of sympathy, and at the Protestant cathedral the clergyman, in referring to the event, thanked Providence for shielding Her Majesty from the hand of the assassin. The news of the Dublin murders was also received with a general outcry of horror, though, as Mr. Gladstone's Government is by no means in favour with the German press, there were not wanting hints that the crimes were the result of a mistaken Ministerial policy. The volunteer review at Portsmouth called forth some rather unfavourable criticisms, while the proposed Channel tunnel evoked a remarkable article in the *Militär Wochenblatt*, the writer beginning by reproaching the English people with playing a game of hazard by keeping up so small an army. He declared, with respect to the construction of the tunnel, there was only one possible view, that of Sir Garnet Wolseley. With regard to any precautions which might be taken to flood or blow up the tunnel in the hour of danger, he pointed out that the machinery might fail, or be rendered useless by treacherous hands. He quoted the instance of the Vosges tunnels, which were carefully mined during the war of 1870. No one, however, thought of applying a match, and the Germans advanced unimpeded. Were, also, the tunnel to be occupied by the enemy, the defensive action of the fleet would be utterly paralysed. Frenchmen, he remarked, had naturally no objection to the enterprise, for the military superiority of the French coast defences would effectually prevent any English invasion of France, while a French force, once landed in England, would advance upon London without difficulty. As for neutralising the tunnel, recent history had demonstrated the worthlessness of parchment treaties. When



England assimilated her military system to that of the Continental Powers, then, and then only, would the military objections to the tunnel lose their force. Another English item, though this time connected directly with Germany, was the special mission, sent on February 7th by the Queen, to invest King Albert of Saxony with the Order of the Garter, the ceremony being performed by the Earl of Fife. In conclusion, we may mention that the Grand Hygienic Exhibition was burned down on May 12th, on the very eve of its opening. On September 16th an important Electrical Exhibition was opened at Munich. At Schwerin the theatre was destroyed by fire, but although the house was full at the time, so perfect were the precautions which had been adopted, since the Vienna catastrophe that within seven minutes of the alarm the house was completely emptied without any casualty whatever. Two serious railway accidents have occurred, a somewhat unusual circumstance in Germany. On May 30th two passenger trains came into collision near Heidelberg, eight persons being killed, and a large number injured; the second happened to an excursion train in Baden, near Freiburg, on September 3rd, fifty-five persons being killed and many seriously injured. Considerable excitement was caused in June by the discovery that a naval officer, Chief Pilot Meiling, had sold, for a bribe of £20,000, to the Russian Government plans of the coast defences and the details of the Baltic forts. He was assisted by a student, who committed suicide. Meiling was duly tried, and found guilty, being sentenced to six years' hard labour. In conclusion, one of the chief topics of the day has been the proposed construction of a great ship canal connecting the Baltic and the North Sea.

**Austria.**—The politics of the Austro-Hungarian Empire have been far more peaceable than usual, and as quiescent as could be expected where the miscellaneity of its population is taken into consideration, and especially where the inherent and hereditary antagonism of those two great sections of the community, Slav and Teuton, was so unduly excited by such an event as the Herzegovinian insurrection. It is true that the interest caused by the Egyptian crisis has done much to detract public attention from home matters, but taking it all in all Austro-Hungary must be congratulated on having shown this year that a number of different nationalities with conflicting interests can exist harmoniously together under one common régime and one common Sovereign when judiciously treated. The year began with the death of a man whose talents were not only appreciated at home, but who was regarded

with the highest respect by the whole of Europe—namely, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, Baron Haymerle. This eminent diplomatist took a prominent part in the negotiations of the Berlin Congress, and when Count Andrassy resigned he was entrusted with the most responsible part in the common Austro-Hungarian Ministry. His funeral took place at Vienna with the greatest possible solemnities, and the Emperor himself, with the Archdukes, joined the funeral cortège. His successor was somewhat difficult to find, and at first the vacancy caused by his death was filled nominally by Count Szlavy, the common Minister of Finance, the administrative business, however, being delegated to Baron Kallay. This scene of mourning was speedily changed for an era of festivities on the occasion of the visit of King Humbert of Italy and his Queen to Vienna; of this visit we have treated elsewhere, but while on the one hand some politicians hailed a *rap-prochement* between Austria and Italy as a species of counter-check to the apparent over-friendliness of Germany and Russia, there were not wanting evil prophets who saw in this visit a prospective cause of offence to France. This all parties were anxious to avoid, and official circles were particularly careful to enunciate that the visit in no way should be construed into a hostile manifestation against the French nation. The warmest reception, however, was accorded in all Austrian circles to their royal guests, and ardent wishes were everywhere expressed that this visit might be the means, not only of cementing a friendship between the two dynasties, but of reconciling the jealousies of two populations between which so much distrust had hitherto existed. It was noted as a graceful act on the part of the Royal visitors that the first visit paid by them in Vienna was to the widow of Baron Haymerle. We have equally treated in the Italian chapter of the disagreeable controversy which arose subsequently with the Italian press owing to certain statements in the Hungarian Delegation, and we will pass on to the definitive appointment, on November 21st, of Count Kalnoky as Minister for Foreign Affairs. The importance of such a nomination as this may be seen when it is remembered that Austria and Hungary are governed by two separate Cabinets, each practically under the control of its respective Parliament. Foreign affairs, the Imperial Finances, and the control of the army, are entrusted to three Ministers, who represent both Parliaments in common, and are appointed by the Sovereign and responsible only to him and to two committees, ordinarily termed the Delegations, appointed by the two Parliaments. As Count Kalnoky was at the time ambassador to Russia, his appointment revived the rumours that a triple alliance was once more to be revived.

These anticipations, however, were in no little measure falsified by the much-talked-of interview between the Czar and the Emperor not taking place, and subsequently by the hostile tone adopted by Russia with regard to the Herzegovinian insurrection, and which culminated in the wild utterances of General Skobelev. Another speech, and that a Royal one, was first to rouse the anger of Austria. This was the address from the Throne of King Charles of Roumania, to which we refer in our account of that country. These belligerent declarations of a Sovereign, who owed his elevation to monarchical rank chiefly to the goodwill of Austria, excited the most energetic remonstrances, and the subsequent apology of his Government barely served to calm the general apprehension that such conduct on his part was not prompted by Russia, and her Slavophil Sovereign, backed by England and her Austro-phobian Premier. On December 9th, however, politics were overshadowed by a terrible catastrophe in Vienna; this was the burning of the Ring Theatre, during a performance of an operetta, Offenbach's "Contes de Hoffmann." The origin of the fire appears to be somewhat shrouded in mystery, but the flames immediately spread to the scenery, and in a moment the whole stage was ablaze. Although there was an iron curtain in existence for the purpose of separating the house from the stage in such an emergency, it was not lowered, and the ordinary curtain being blown aside from the front, a sheet of flame burst into the auditorium, and caused an immediate and terrible panic amongst the spectators. This was enhanced by the extinction of the gas, and the inability of the audience to find their way to the exits: these, again, were speedily choked by too eager persons falling in their haste one upon the other, the special doors provided for occasions of this kind being locked. Some delay unaccountably arose in giving the alarm to the fire station, so that it was fully ten minutes before the engines arrived on the scene; and by that time the interior was filled with flame and smoke, so that when the firemen and policemen first entered the building, they were under the impression from the silence which reigned that every one had escaped. Thus, volunteers who wished to enter the building were forcibly prevented by the police, and one or two survivors who escaped were discredited, and treated as beside themselves, when they declared that the house was still full of people. One young lady in particular, who jumped from the balcony, told the police that they were mistaken in thinking that no one remained; but all that was done appears to have been simply to take down her name and address. When the building was at last entered, a terrible sight was presented; there could be seen a confused mass of human beings who, in

their hurry to escape their terrible doom, had been crushed and trampled to death. The greatest excitement was caused in all circles in Vienna by such a catastrophe; the first thought was to raise a relief fund for the surviving relatives of the victims, the Emperor subscribing £1,000, and the Reichstag voting five times that amount. The second was to give the dead a public funeral. This was celebrated in the Church of St. Stephan, and was attended by the Crown Prince, the Ministers, and the chief notabilities of the Empire. The sight in the Cathedral where a solemn mass was performed by the Archbishop, at the close of which all the bells in the town tolled a funeral knell, however, was nothing to that in the cemetery, where 142 coffins were placed on a dais, the relatives and friends of the dead being assembled on one side, while on the other stood the municipal authorities of Vienna. As the dead were of different creeds, the funeral services for each sect were in turn performed by Roman Catholic, Protestant, Greek, and Jewish clergymen, according to their several rituals. This number, however, by no means represented the total of the victims, which, although at first reported to have been over 800, was finally and officially ascertained to have been 384. As may be imagined, an inquiry into the causes of the disaster was at once instituted, which ended in the trial, in the following April, of Herr Von Newald, the burgomaster, Herr Jauner, the lessee of the theatre, Joseph Nitsche, a foreman of the machinery, August Breilhofer, the fire-guard, Franz Geringer, the theatrical inspector, Anton Landsteiner, inspector of police, Adolph Wilhelm, the municipal engineer, and Leon Hardt Heer, the fire brigade storekeeper, who were all accused more or less indirectly of contributing to the catastrophe, by negligence in their various departments. It was proved that the oil lamps which were ordered to be provided so as to afford illumination in the event of an accident to the gas had been duly furnished, but the inspector had neglected to put them in their places. Again, there was no lack of extra doors, but in the panic the attendants appeared to have forgotten their existence. More than 100 witnesses were examined, with the result of proving that the disaster was due to a variety of causes, to duties omitted, and faults committed. There seems also to have been a want of harmony between the police, the municipality, and the fire brigade, which contributed in no small degree to the lamentable confusion which resulted in so great a loss of life. Finally, the burgomaster, the inspector, and the fire brigade officials were acquitted, and the manager, theatrical inspector, and the foreman of machinery were found guilty: the first-named was sentenced to four months' simple imprisonment; the foreman Nitsche to eight months' imprison-

ment; and the theatrical inspector, under whose control the fire-guard of the theatre was placed, to four months' imprisonment. Each of the prisoners was also mulcted to the extent of 6,000 florins towards the relief of the widows and orphans, though, be it said to their credit, the Austrian public of all circles showed themselves most liberal in providing for the sufferers. There is a pretty story of the little Arch-Duchess Valerie, the youngest daughter of the Emperor, begging her father at Christmas in lieu of giving her his usual present of jewellery, to allow her to adopt with the money one of the children left destitute by the fire.

In Hungarian politics, beyond a personal wrangle in the Hungarian Parliament, during which a Radical deputy told M. Tisza that he had lied on the Opposition bench for seven years, so that for six he might cheat as a Minister, there is nothing to chronicle in Parliamentary annals until the end of the year. Meanwhile, a black cloud was arising in the "protected" provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Austria having endowed the inhabitants with all the blessings of a western civilised rule, considered that in return they were in duty bound to contribute a contingent to the military service of the country. Accordingly, a decree was issued introducing compulsory militia service into the provinces. This decree excited general opposition, and signs of insurrection were not long in making their appearance. The first signal of revolt, however, came from the mountain districts in the Bocche di Cattaro, Dalmatia, where, in 1868, the mountaineers had sturdily resisted an attempt to force them to furnish their contingent to the Landwehr. The military authorities were not slow in taking energetic measures to put down the rising, and to prevent its spread. But there was too much sympathy between the Dalmatians, their neighbours and almost kinsmen, the Montenegrins, and the discontented tribes in the annexed provinces, for their efforts to be successful, notwithstanding that a cordon of troops was drawn around the affected districts under the command of General Jovanovics, the Governor-General of the province. The head-quarters of the insurrection was a small highland district entitled the Crivoscia, situated amid a range of craggy mountains at little more than ten miles from Cattaro. The rising gained ground, and strong reinforcements had to be despatched to the scene of action, for it was manifest that the Moscow Panславists were encouraging the insurgents to the utmost, while it was a significant fact that whereas the first banner of the insurgents was a black flag with a white cross, the Servian colours were suddenly adopted after an interview between a Russian officer and the insurgent

chief, Peter Samardjic. The situation was considered so serious in Vienna that the Austrian and Hungarian Delegations were summoned, and it was announced that they would be requested to sanction the despatch of 20,000 men to Dalmatia and the annexed provinces, not, it was carefully explained, that the object in view was to crush an insurrection which as yet had not broken out, but to forestall any such contingency. Before the Delegations could meet, however, the insurrection had broken out, and, on January 23rd, the Hungarian Premier—M. Tisza—was compelled to admit that disturbances of such an extent had arisen both in Southern Dalmatia and in the Herzegovina, that they necessitated vigorous action on the part of the Government. He stated that the disorders were due to the enforcement of the conscription laws, and announced that not only would the rising be energetically put down, but that such measures would be taken as to convince the populations affected that the system of chronic disturbance to which they had so long been accustomed could not be allowed to continue. Various encounters now began to take place between the insurgents and the Austrian troops and gendarmerie. A violent proclamation was issued in the Servian language, and Mahomedans and Christians fraternised in the common cause of fighting for their independence, while the Mahomedan gendarmerie deserted largely with the arms and accoutrements with which they had been supplied by the Austrians. No less than eight encounters took place between January 16th and the 21st, the insurgents adopting their favourite policy of attacking isolated outposts. From this time the insurrection spread rapidly. On January 28th the Delegations met, and the Common Ministry at once asked for a credit of £800,000 for the suppression of the movement, of which Austria was asked to pay seventy per cent., the remainder being allotted to Hungary. This sum, it was acknowledged, was only to cover the expenses for the coming three months; for, as the Minister of War stated, he could hardly calculate the expenses which might be necessary. The Foreign Minister, on his side, declared that Austria was on the best terms with the Governments of Russia, Turkey, Montenegro, and Servia. This was perfectly true with respect to the various Governments, but by no means so with regard to the populations. The Servians passively sympathised with the insurgents, the Montenegrins more actively, as they not only assisted them by all the means in their power, but were known to be fighting in the insurgent ranks. In Russia also the Slav party openly avowed their sympathy with the rising, and General Skobelev, in a fiery speech at the anniversary banquet at the storming of Geok Tepe, took no pains to hide his sentiments

on the subject. Thus, week by week the movement gained ground in the annexed provinces, more battles were reported, and the results of some were stated not to be altogether favourable to Austrian arms. The insurgents pursued their favourite guerilla mode of warfare, swooping down in small bands, and, when repulsed, running away only to re-assemble and skirmish again on the following day. Their numbers, both in Crivoscia and in the Herzegovina, constantly increased, until they were estimated at nearly 10,000, led by well-known and determined chiefs. Much fighting took place near Brod, the Austrian troops in that district being under the command of General Obadics. However, with the exception of the capture of Ledenice, in Crivoscia, which had a salutary effect upon the inhabitants, no important military operation was at first undertaken by the Austrians, who were anxious to assemble a powerful force in the affected districts, and thus be able to strike a decisive blow at the insurrection. Indeed, the Austrian military cordon had not been strong enough to prevent communication between the insurgents of Herzegovina and Dalmatia, nor, indeed, was the Montenegrin cordon able to prevent them from passing to and fro through Montenegro. That the insurrection was supported from outside was rendered manifest by the attitude of the Russian Panславists; while the Montenegrins showed themselves so eager to take part in the insurrection, that Prince Nikita found it necessary to remind his people, in an address, that Austrian rule was very different from Turkish rule, and that with regard to the obnoxious conscription, military organisation must prevail in every country in Europe. The insurgents also were regarded with sympathy by the Italians, ever eager to find a cause for hostility against Austria, and an Italian vessel was captured in the Bocche di Cattaro laden with arms and ammunition, evidently intended for the insurgents.

Austria's difficulties, moreover, were complicated by the sudden discovery of a revolutionary agitation amongst the Ruthenian population of Eastern Galicia. This race is a branch of the great stock of Little Russians, and consequently was possessed of strong Slav sympathies. Moreover, owing to Russian intrigues, a whole Ruthenian village had suddenly, without apparent rhyme or reason, gone over from the Catholic to the orthodox Greek Church. The revolutionary movement was revealed by the accidental discovery of papers by the police, who at once took decisive and successful measures to crush this embryo revolution in the bud. Eleven Ruthenians were arrested, and at the end of May brought to trial for high treason. The chief accused, Adolf Dobransky, had long been in connection

with the Russian Panslavic movement, and, it was stated, had been agitating to gain over the Ruthenian clergy in Upper Hungary, to many of whom he had supplied money. Another noteworthy prisoner was a Greek priest, Johann Naumoviez, who was accused of having conspired to work upon the religious feelings of the population, and to bring them to the orthodox Greek faith, so as to prepare the ground for Panslavism.

In the districts of Crivoscia and Herzegovina, further proofs of Russian interference were furnished by the constant arrival of Russian volunteers in Bucharest after much the same manner as they had done previous to the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war, while the insurgents issued a vigorous proclamation, declaring that if they fell in the fight their brethren from the great empire of Russia would measure their military power with the Austro-Hungarian troops. It is true that the same manifesto declared that the great English nation, under the great Liberal statesman, Mr. Gladstone, was for the liberation of all the Balkan people from a foreign and a brutal dominion. Still all foreign Governments continued to assure Austria of their friendly feelings and intentions, and M. de Giers even apologised for the intemperate utterances of General Skobelev. Towards the end of February the Austrians made a decided move forward, the insurgents having mainly concentrated their forces upon the Dragali plateau. The Austrians despatched their troops in four columns from different points—namely, Foca, Tronva, Mostar, and Gatchko—but the terrible weather which ensued seriously interfered with military operations, and the troops were unable to strike an immediate and decisive blow. The insurgents, however, had to fight retreating battles, and were gradually driven back upon their mountain stronghold. Simultaneously with the Austrian advance, Turkey had despatched Dervish Pasha with a strong force of troops to Novi-Bazar, with the double intention of preventing communication between the insurgents and their sympathisers on Turkish territory, and of manifesting to the Mussulman inhabitants of the affected districts that the Sultan, the head of the Mahomedan world, disapproved of the movement. Prince Nikita, moreover, surrounded his little Principality with a yet stronger cordon of troops. On March 8th the important position of Ubli, in the Crivoscia, was taken, and the troops, who had now been subdivided into seven columns, were massed against the two chief strongholds of the insurgents—the pass of Lupo Glava, and another pass leading to the plateau of Dragali. The latter place was taken on the 10th through the forced and rapid marches of



the Austrian troops. These marches were considered to be extraordinary performances, even from a modern military point of view; some battalions had to make their way over pathless rocks and snow and ice-fields, which the insurgents had considered inaccessible. In one instance a march through snow from three to ten feet deep was continued for sixteen hours. The insurgents' stronghold on Mount Veliorh was captured almost by a *coup de main*, the troops having to climb to the top, a height of 4,000 feet, by a most steep and precipitous path, which the insurgents had considered it impossible for the troops to ascend. The insurgents fought hard at the last, but being thus taken in the rear, were compelled to succumb, and fled in disorder. From that time the insurrection in the Crivoscia may be said to have been completely crushed, and, as was only to be expected, the effect on the Herzegovinian insurgents was considerable. Isolated attacks, again and again, were made upon the troops, and on April 4th another insurgent stronghold, the Biela Gora, was captured, and a noteworthy insurgent leader, Hamsic Beg of Durakovie, was taken prisoner; but gradually, and week by week, the provinces became more and more pacified. Large numbers of refugees fled to Montenegro, where they were duly disarmed and interned, much, be it said, to the embarrassment of that small and not over rich Principality, which found itself somewhat at a loss for means to support so large an addition to her population. The Emperor of Austria congratulated General Jovanovics on his success, and the Minister of War expressed his opinion that the rising would be completely subdued in a month's time.

The campaign may then be said to have been transferred from the military to the political battle-field. The feeling against Russia rapidly subsided, being in a great measure assuaged by the visit to Vienna of the Grand Duke Vladimir of Russia, who, together with his wife, was on his way to Italy. Unusual pains were taken to show not only courtesy but cordiality during the stay of the Russian guests, and thus to efface all the unpleasantness which had been caused by the Skobelev speech, and the hostile action of the Slav committee.

To turn for a brief moment to internal politics, we may note that there had been some sharp battles in the Reichsrath between the Conservatives and the Government as to the proposed Bill for electoral reform, and a bitter struggle seemed to be pending between Conservatives and Liberals. The great political topic, however, was the debate in the Delegations over the sum asked for the pacification and re-organisation of the Crivoscia and the Herzegovina. The extraordinary credit demanded by the Common Ministry

amounted to £23,000,000. The Austrian Delegation, whose president, Herr von Schmerling, paid an eloquent tribute to the army in his opening speech, at once granted the money. The Government gave full explanations on the existing situation. The Minister of War declared that the country was almost cleared of insurgents, of whom only small bands existed. Little resistance was therefore expected to be offered to the recruiting, even in the Herzegovina, which was to begin in May. It was not proposed, however, to raise a Bosnian army, but a small defensive force of 1,200 men on the principle that the defence of his country is a duty incumbent upon every man. The Minister of Finance, Count de Szlavy, who is also practically the Minister responsible for the protected provinces, assured his hearers that the Government was trying to improve and simplify the administration, and to adapt it to the special conditions of the country. The Hungarian Delegation were somewhat more difficult to deal with, and took exception to an item of £500,000, which the Government had demanded for fortifications and barracks. The Liberals strongly objected to the full force of 76,000 men then in the disturbed districts being kept there for another three months. Ultimately, the credit was reduced by £200,000. This decision was at once followed by Count de Szlavy's resignation. When the estimates passed by the Delegations were presented to the Lower House of the Hungarian Diet, there was a passionate debate on the subject. The Hungarians, as Magyars, warmly objected to the increase of the Slav element of the Empire, which was brought about by the practical annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina: the debate occupied eleven days, but the estimates were finally voted. For nearly a month Count de Szlavy continued his functions as Minister of Finance, despite his resignation, on account of the difficulty of finding a successor; eventually, however, Herr von Kallay was appointed to the unthankful post, and, as usual, it was announced that great reforms were to be effected in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and that fresh life and vigour would be introduced into the administration. This was undoubtedly due to the strictures on the existing mode of government, which were made in the Upper Hungarian House by Count Dessenffy, who had had great administrative experience in the provinces in question. Thenceforward, it was determined to try the experiment of governing the Bosnians rather according to the Slav than to the Teutonic and Magyar systems. Herr von Kallay's nomination was followed by the appointment of Count Rudolf Khevenhüller as military commander in the disturbed districts, in place of Lieutenant-General Baron Dahlen, who, being a great invalid, was relieved

from his functions. Another official retirement was that of Count Beust, who retired from the Paris Embassy, and from the diplomatic service, owing to ill-health. His resignation was accepted by the Emperor in a most flattering letter, in which he expressed "full appreciation of, and warmest gratitude for, the distinguished services rendered with self-sacrificing devotion during a series of years to me, and to the State. You stood," he continued, "with courage and perseverance at my side, as Chancellor of the Empire, and as Minister for Foreign Affairs, in the most important period of my reign. You have, therefore, acquired great and lasting merits in connection with the welfare of the monarchy." Rarely has any political retirement been looked upon with greater regret by both sovereign and people than that of this Minister, who in the numerous crises had never been found wanting in foresight, in courage, and in firmness.

Another subject now began to occupy public attention. The outrages upon the Jews in Russia had caused an enormous emigration of fugitives across the Austrian frontier, and an international committee had been formed to relieve the fugitives as far as possible, and to forward them to the United States. The Jewish immigration, however, greatly outstripped all their efforts, and by June 1st the number in Brode alone amounted to 13,000. A camp had been provided, but this accommodation proved insufficient, and the unfortunate refugees were crowded almost to suffocation in barns and stables, while many were in an absolute condition of starvation, and, moreover, were threatened with decimation by small-pox and measles. The question was ultimately brought before the Hungarian Diet, but the House declared that no legislative enactments were necessary, and merely drew the attention of the Government to the sanitary and police measures which might eventually be needed.

There is little further of outside interest to chronicle in Austria, either politically or socially. There have been the usual internecine jealousies between Teuton and Magyar, jealousies which a new political faction, the New German People's Party, tried to overcome by the issue of a programme, which starts from the principle, "That no State can subsist in which parties are defined by nationalities, as their struggles, like religious struggles, have a destructive effect, while struggles for political principles are healthy, and tend to strengthen public life." Considering that the great weakness of the Austro-Hungarian Empire is the miscellaneous nature of its population, which comprises Germans, Hungarians, Bohemians, Croats, Czechs, and Slavs, this advice, if it could only be followed, would certainly render Austria the most

powerful empire in Europe. Abroad, apart from the ill-feeling towards Russia, and the *rapprochement* towards Italy, of which we have already treated, the Egyptian question has been the one great theme. In this, Austria has pursued a uniform course with Germany, except that her popular press has betrayed a somewhat greater jealousy of England, of her energetic policy, and of her success. Throughout the year Austria has kept on the very best of terms with Germany, and the visit of the German Emperor to Ischl, in August, where he was received by the Emperor Francis Joseph, was most cordial in its character. The press commented on this meeting in the most glowing terms, and foretold as the result a greater friendship between the two dynasties and the two peoples, whence would arise an enhanced prospect of the maintenance of European peace. The last two months of the year of which we are treating, however, were marred by two untoward incidents, both of which took place at Trieste, where, it should be said, there is a very strong section of the *Italia Irredenta*, or unredeemed Italy party. When, at the beginning of August, the five-hundredth anniversary of the union of Trieste with Austria was announced to be celebrated with great rejoicings, the Irredentists not only issued a protest against the celebration, but, on the arrival of the Emperor of Austria's brother the Archduke Karl Ludwig, at Trieste, to open the industrial exhibition, a shell was thrown into the midst of a torchlight procession, and one man was killed and several wounded. The crowd, at once setting this outrage down to the Italians, made a hostile demonstration before the Italian Consulate, wrecked the offices of an Italian newspaper, and smashed the windows of the cafés where Italians were wont to congregate. For several days the agitation in the city was continued, the Austrian press teemed with the most violent and anti-Italian articles, and, though the Austrian Government formally apologised for the insult offered to the Italian Consulate, the popular feeling of irritation against Italy was once more aroused. Nor were matters bettered by the discovery of a box of bombs, seized on board a steamer coming from Venice, and, to judge from the seditious proclamations by which they were accompanied, it was supposed they were intended to be used against the torchlight procession, which was to take place on the Emperor's birthday. On September 17th the Emperor and Empress visited Trieste, where an exhibition was being held. Once more the Irredentists showed their determination to disturb the public peace, this time by concocting a plot against the Emperor's life, which was fortunately frustrated by the arrest of a man named Oberdank, a deserter from the ranks of the Austrian army, who

was found to have Orsini bombs in his possession. The inhabitants of Trieste, however, tried to make up for this abominable conspiracy by receiving their sovereign with the most enthusiastic loyalty, and festivities innumerable marked the period of their stay. Unfortunately, the object of their visit, the Exhibition, was unroofed and greatly damaged by a terrible storm; indeed, the weather throughout Southern Austria during September was of abnormal severity. In the Tyrol particularly, great snowstorms swept the country, choking up passes, and covering up the scanty mountain herbage, and causing severe loss both to the crops and the flocks of the peasantry. Where the snow did not fall torrents of rain devastated the country, flooding numerous districts, and sweeping the bridges away. The district near Olagenfurt was almost impossible of access. The picturesque village of Welsberg was reduced to a heap of ruins; the village of Innichen fared no better, while that of Salurn was completely submerged. A shocking accident, similar to the Tay Bridge disaster, occurred on September 23rd near a small town named Esseg, on the confines of Slavonia, Austria. Here a railroad crosses an iron bridge over the river Drave, and, as a train was passing, the woodwork gave way, and the engine, tender, two goods vans, and two passenger carriages, were hurled into the stream below. Thirty men of the 15th Hussar Regiment, returning home on leave from Serajevo and Mostar, were drowned, forty-nine escaped, together with the engine-driver and stoker; seventeen men were more or less injured. We must not quit our record of Austria without a mention of the highly successful meeting at Vienna of the Iron and Steel Institute, presided over by Mr. Lowthian Bell in the absence of the chairman, Mr. Josiah Smith. Mr. B. Samuelson was elected president for the next two years.

**Russia.**—In Russia the period of which our history treats has been one of almost uninterrupted gloom: Nihilist conspiracies and assassinations, and official discoveries, arrests and trials of the conspirators, outrages against the Jews, outcries against the Teutonic element of the population, mingled with the almost open confession of failure by the Government to cope with the difficulties of the situation, and the continued isolation of the Czar and his family—such have been the leading incidents of the past twelve months. The condition of affairs at the commencement of the period was certainly most discouraging; the Nihilists, who had been comparatively tranquil during the few months which had elapsed since their murder of the Emperor, were now beginning to renew their threats against the existing

régime, and to disseminate their seditious literature with that marvellous and wide-spread secret organisation in which lies their great strength. To fight them with their own weapons, certain loyal circles had formed a Holy Brotherhood (Swiataia Droujina), on the model of the revolutionary societies; the programme being to "get rid" of the most dangerous leaders of Nihilism, and to protect the person of Emperor. An official flavour was given to the composition of the Brotherhood by the announcement that its president "was a very exalted personage," and that one of its leading spirits was an ex-head of the police, M. Pootilin. On their side the Nihilists issued another number of one of their most violent organs, the *Black Division* (Tchernay Peredel), though the police, obtaining scent of the printing office, swooped down upon it, and made four prisoners, including one lady belonging to the noble classes, Marie Constantinovna Kryloff. Found guilty, this lady and two of her accomplices were sentenced to forced residence in Siberia, and the fourth prisoner to only four months' imprisonment. This trial, however, was comparatively unimportant to those which were to follow, of which the two most noteworthy were that of the police and municipal officials, whose negligence, it was alleged, contributed to the success of the Nihilists in assassinating the late Czar, and that of a large number of Nihilists, both for complicity in this crime and in the murder of General Mensentzeff. Pending these trials, both Nihilists and police were busy; the former were energetically pursuing their propaganda, and particularly by the issue of yet another journal, the *Narodnaya A. Volia*, while the latter were no less actively making seizures and arrests. On November 25th there was another attempt at assassination of an important official—General Tcherevin, chief director of the measures for securing the safety of the Emperor, and Assistant Minister of the Interior, being this time the victim selected by the revolutionists. The would-be assassin was a young man of noble birth, named Sankofsky, who, through misfortune, had become the tool of a Nihilist named Melnikoff. Sankofsky presented himself at General Tcherevin's office, and demanded an interview on business of importance. When ushered into the General's presence he drew a revolver from his pocket, and fired, though, fortunately, without effect, being at once seized by the General himself, his accomplice also being subsequently arrested. This attempt revived the panic of the Nihilists, both in official and non-official circles, for it was manifest that General Ignatieff, despite the flourish of trumpets with which he came into office, had in no way bettered the situation as it was left by his predecessor, General Melikoff.

One result of this panic was a still greater exercise of official despotism, no foreign telegrams describing the outrage being permitted to pass, while a still greater proof of the terrorism in which the Nihilists held the Court was the celebration, for the first time in the history of Russia, of the anniversary of the military Order of St. George away from the capital. The Emperor held the reception in his palace at Gatchina on December 8th, and all but the staff and the superior officers of the Order were excluded from taking part in the ceremony. From this time, also, it was manifest that the influence of General Ignatieff was greatly on the decline, and people began, more or less openly, to discuss his probable successor. The trial of the officers accused of neglecting their duty in not discovering the mine in Little Garden Street, which was unearthed after the assassination, took place in December. The authorities asserted that had the existence of this mine been known previously, they would have been placed more on the alert, and possibly could have prevented the Czar's murder, as the arrangements for his visit to the military parade, on the return from which he met his death, would have been modified. The accused were Major-General Constantine Mrovinsky, one of the officials of the St. Petersburg Prefecture; Paul Tegleff, a district chief police officer; and State Councillor Fursoff, chief of the secret section of the Prefecture. The house, it appears, had been duly inspected by General Mrovinsky, upon the information given by Tegleff, but nothing had been found. Fursoff, although suspicious of the inhabitants of the shop, also neglected to put his superiors on their guard; while all three were accused of not having arrested the shopkeeper and his wife, and of having thus permitted them to escape. The prisoners were tried, and, being found guilty, were sentenced to exile in Archangel for three years. The next trial was that of Sankofsky and Melnikoff, the would-be murderers of General Tcherevin. But the great trial of the year was that on February 21st of the twenty prominent Nihilists who were accused of being implicated more or less with the eleven great Nihilist crimes of the past five years, beginning with the murder of General Mensentsoff, in August, 1878, and the attempt of Solovieff on the life of the Czar in 1879, the mine under the railway at Alexandrovsk in 1879, the explosion at the Winter Palace in 1880, down to the culminating crime of March 13th. Amongst the prisoners were some of the principal guiding spirits of the revolutionists, such as Kledotsnikoff, who was actually one of the secret police, and regularly betrayed valuable information to the Nihilists; Emil Anoff, who carried a bomb on March 13th;

Morosoff, the editor of the *Will of the People*; Lieutenant Sukhanoff, who was the technical assistant and adviser of the Nihilist Executive Committee; and Michailoff, who had taken part in the construction of various mines, including that in Little Garden Street. All the prisoners were found guilty, and ten of them sentenced to be hanged, these last being found guilty of complicity in the assassination of the Czar, Michailoff, Sukhanoff, and Emil Anoff being amongst them. Several of the prisoners made full statements of their guilt, while others adopted a bold front, and denied any participation in the crimes of which they were accused. Sukhanoff, in admitting his guilt, drew a moving and vivid picture of the circumstances which drove him into a career of political crime, even the judges being deeply affected by his statement. He declared that the unhappy position created by the abnormal social conditions of life in Russia would drive any enlightened and sensitive man into the arms of the revolutionists. Another of the prisoners, Issajeff, confessed to having been concerned in the explosion at the Winter Palace and the actual assassination of the Czar. The sentences of death were subsequently commuted by the Czar to hard labour in the Siberian mines, Sukhanoff being excepted as having been an officer actually in the Czar's service; he was accordingly shot. Singular to say, on the day (March 30th) of the commutation of these sentences another political assassination took place. General Strelnikoff, the Public Prosecutor at the Kieff Military Tribunal, and who had gained great distinction by his powerful denunciations, was shot in broad daylight on the boulevard at Odessa. The actual assassin and an accomplice were captured and tried, sentenced to death, and executed within a few days. Numerous other arrests, trials, and condemnations took place for Nihilist crimes of more or less magnitude throughout the year; but, notwithstanding the severity of the sentences, the number of arrests, and the enormous difficulties encountered by the Nihilists, the movement seemed in no way to be checked; and at the latter end of March another number of the *Will of the People* testified to the vitality of the revolutionists by declaring its disappointment at the effect which the Czar's assassination had upon "the Russian Liberals, who, taken aback by that catastrophe, were still undecided what to do, and confined their activity to occasional demands for a Constitution, made in the most servile and cringing way. The great proprietors, capitalists, and bankers, it was declared, group themselves round the throne, and are fit only for house spies and for members of the secret Holy League. The event of March 13th had proved the insolvency of the



instructed class, and the signs of a terrible reckoning were becoming apparent. . . . We will go on in spite of the reprisals of the Government, and, as we have done hitherto, we will continue to disorganise the Government wherever it shall seem necessary. Men knowing how to die for their ideas will not be stopped by the deceit of society, by calumny, or by torture ; to 'conquer or to die' is our motto!" That this declaration, bombastical as it might seem, was not mere empty talk had been proved by the attitude of the prisoners at the various trials, none of whom proved craven or gave any really valuable information with regard to his colleagues still at liberty. Whatever might be the faults of the Nihilists, it could not but be admitted that they were courageous, and sincere in their convictions, and it is this which has always rendered the movement so great an element of danger to official circles in Russia. In June another wholesale arrest of some forty Nihilists was made at St. Petersburg, a quantity of explosive material being found in the house where the conspirators had assembled. Moreover, almost simultaneously, it was found that sedition to an alarming extent prevailed amongst the garrison of the Peter and Paul fortress, where it was discovered that many political prisoners who were supposed to be in Siberia were living in comfortable confinement and enjoying illegal indulgences.

Throughout these troublous times the Czar remained in close retirement at Gatchina, where he was carefully guarded by a strong force of troops. There is a sad story of the Czar, while walking in his garden, beckoning a gardener to him. No sooner did the man draw near to his sovereign than he was shot dead by a sentry, who had had orders to fire at every person who approached the Czar without being called, the soldier not having noticed the beckoning gesture. The coronation was indefinitely postponed to quieter times—and that these had not arrived, at least in April, was evident from a mine being discovered beneath Moscow cathedral, where the ceremony should be held. Subsequently, also, a plot to blow up the Kremlin was detected ; and seizures of dynamite were also made, so that there was little doubt that organised plans for assassinating the Czar during the festivities had been laid by the Nihilists. Thus, with the exception of three visits to St. Petersburg, one to attend a service on the anniversary of his father's assassination on March 13th, a second on the occasion of a military review on May 28th, and a third in September, when he attended the fête of St. Alexander Newsky, driving unguarded through the streets, and his trip to his summer quarters at Peterhoff, the Czar did not undertake any journey until his visit to Moscow,

also in the middle of September. In the beginning of September the Czar had a narrow escape, when returning home from some military manœuvres at Ishora, by the giving way, immediately after he had crossed it, of a temporary bridge which had been thrown over a ravine. On September 20th the long-looked-for visit to Moscow was paid, and the Czar and Empress received the warmest welcome in the ancient capital of Russia. They visited the Exhibition and the various institutions of Moscow, and held a grand review, the Emperor inspecting the troops on horseback, with the Prince of Montenegro, who was visiting Russia, by his side. The Czar and Empress left Moscow without any untoward incident, and, although there had been continual rumours that the coronation would be suddenly held, and even that it had already been surreptitiously performed, the visit appears to have been simply made to test the feeling of the public with regard to the resumption by the royal pair of their duties of State.

After the Socialist agitation the Jewish question has been the chief feature of the year; the anti-Semitic movement, it should be stated, being not a religious but a social crusade. It is true that the orthodox Russian looks upon a Jew as worse than an infidel, but in this case it was mainly the intense jealousy with which the population regard the Jews for their comparative financial and commercial prosperity which prompted the terrible outrages which will ever remain one of the blackest pages of modern Russian history. The Jews in Russia are the great money-lenders and dram-shop keepers; the former indispensable to all classes, the latter the chief consolation of the hard-worked and discontented moujik. At the same time, though both callings are, as we have said, indispensable, those who pursue them are none the less cordially hated by their very customers. The great landlord, who has mortgaged his crops perhaps for years to come; the shopkeeper, who has borrowed capital to carry on his business; the peasant, compelled to raise a loan to pay his taxes or to meet some unforeseen trouble—alike hate the alien usurer; the crowds also who swarm in the vodka shops, and destroy their constitution with draughts of one of the worst known forms of alcohol, detest the men who are helping them to ruin with the all enticing fire-water. And when the Jews are seen to be prosperous—in many instances the most prosperous of the community—a feeling of envy and anger, akin to that of the middle ages, has spread far and wide amongst the population. That the Jews are more industrious, more thrifty, and sharper-witted than the Christians, has only added to

the general feeling of hatred. This anti-Jewish passion, pent up for many years, burst forth a month after the assassination of the Czar—first, on April 27th, 1881, at Elizabethgrad, where whole streets were razed to the ground; next at Kieff, where 2,000 Jews were burnt out of house and home, and then in numerous other towns in Southern Russia. The Jews protested, and though a large number of the rioters were arrested, and the Czar spoke fair words to a Jewish deputation, the Government officially did not appear to hold out sympathy or much hope of redress. General Ignatieff despatched a circular to the provincial Governors, instructing them to form local commissions to inquire into the situation. The tenor of the circular, however, was distinctly anti-Semitic, the causes of the riot being stated to be found in circumstances of a purely economical character. "During the last twenty years," it recited, "the Jews had gradually not only got trade and commerce into their hands, but had also acquired the control of a considerable amount of landed property, and owing to their numbers and solidarity had directed their efforts not to extending the productive power of the estate, but to the exploitation of the indigenous population, and mostly of the poorer classes, which had called forth a protest from the latter in the form of violence." "Thus," declared the Minister, "while energetically protecting the Jews from violence the Government recognised the need of equally energetic steps for removing the present abnormal relations between the Jews and the native population, and for protecting the people from that injurious activity of the Jews which was the cause of the agitation." The Commissions, therefore, were to inquire in what manner the economical activity of the Jews affected the people of that particular district, what difficulties were encountered in applying the existing laws to the Jews in the matters of land rental, the sale of strong liquors, and usury; what alterations were necessary to prevent the Jews evading these laws; and generally what could be done to counteract the injurious influence of Jewish activity. Then, again, in November, the Imperial authorities of Kieff issued new regulations with regard to the residence and the pursuits of Jews in that city. Such policy as was thus pursued by the Government served to encourage rather than to check the agitation, the outrages continued unabated, and in fact were practically increased by the propagation of a false imperial ukase in which it was asserted that the Czar permitted the spoliation of the Israelites. Early in October at Balwierzyski the synagogue and the Jewish quarter were wrecked, at Czarwona the Jewish inhabitants were severely pillaged, while at Odessa the

visit of Sarah Bernhardt, who was announced as a Jewess, served to rouse the fanaticism of the lower classes, who not only mobbed her disgracefully, but brought about an attack upon the Israelitish quarter of that town. These minor outrages, however, were thrown into the shade by the terrible outbreak at Warsaw on Christmas Day. Though the cause is stated to have been accidental there seems little doubt but that it had been carefully planned. A shout of "Fire!" was raised in the church of the Holy Cross, and the crowd, having fresh in its memory the Vienna catastrophe, attempted to rush wildly into the street, numbers being crushed to death in the struggle. The cry arose that the alarm had been falsely given by some Jewish thieves, and the mob at once attacked the Jewish quarter; the riot continued for several days, during which 300 houses and 600 shops were pillaged and thousands of Jews ruined and rendered homeless. Indeed, the official statement subsequently published admitted that 2,011 families suffered in the riots, representing the total number of 10,000 persons. Although there were 20,000 soldiers in Warsaw at the time, the authorities, emulating the conduct of the Governor of Kieff, who declared "that he would not trouble his soldiers for a pack of Jews," seemed to have been supine with regard to the restoration of order, and not to have shown a strong hand until terrible outrages had been committed. The Chief of Police, General Boutterlin, was absent, and only on his return were the disorders suppressed. During the last nine months it was calculated that 100,000 Jewish families had been reduced to poverty, the value of property destroyed in the south alone being reckoned at £16,000,000. At the same time, it must be admitted that in many quarters the authorities praiseworthily set themselves to the repression of the agitation, especially at Odessa, where Prince Dondoukoff-Korsakoff did his utmost to prevent and repress the disturbances, while literally thousands of arrests were made of the agitators, numerous court-martials were held, and official inquiries instituted (3,100 persons being tried at Warsaw alone) which, however, sentenced the culprits, when found guilty, to not overwhelming terms of imprisonment. With regard to the Warsaw riots also, compensation to the amount of about £200,000 was awarded to the sufferers. The Government moreover was aroused to some show of energy by the energetic protests which the news of the outrages had excited in England, and although no official remonstrance was or could be presented, the exhibition of popular feeling in England did not fail to have some effect. With the Easter holidays came a renewal of the outrages, this time at Balta, where the population wrecked the Jewish quarter, 1,500

houses being gutted and 2,500 Jewish families ruined, while, despite the efforts of the authorities, the rioters wrought such havoc among the houses that the streets were encumbered with broken furniture and spoiled merchandise. The condition of the victims was described as most pitiable. A number of similar riots also occurred in other villages. In the early part of May the town of Gombine was almost equally wrecked, but by this time there was a general emigration throughout the south of the Jewish population; thousands upon thousands of unfortunate Israelites fled to the Austrian frontier, where their miserable plight has been described above. This state of things continued until the middle of June, when, General Ignatieff having resigned, to the delight of both Christians and of Jews, his successor, Count Tolstoï, at once issued a manifesto to the provincial authorities recalling Count Ignatieff's circular, warning them against any further negligence with regard to the prevention of anti-Jewish riots for which he should hold the officials responsible. Severe sentences were also passed upon some of the perpetrators of the Balta outrages; and the decisive policy of the Government had certainly the effect of bettering the relations between the two communities. As a matter of fact, it was found that the great Jewish exodus was having a serious effect upon Russian commerce, and the great grain trade, which was chiefly in the hands of the Israelites, was almost at a standstill; moreover, in May it was calculated that nearly 230,000 Jewish families had left the country, with a loss to Russia of some £22,000,000. Notwithstanding the relaxation of the anti-Semitic crusade which we have mentioned above, General Drenteln at the beginning of September summoned a meeting of the Jews at Balta, and roundly rated them for having ventured to send a deputation to St. Petersburg to lay their grievances before the Czar, and telling them in unmeasured and violent terms that they had libelled the authorities of that town by accusing them of exciting the mob against the Jews. "You complain," he exclaimed, "that you are not loved, but how can you be liked when you yourselves love nothing but money." No reproof was vouchsafed to the General for his interference, and on St. Alexander's day he was decorated by the Czar with the order of Alexander Newski, one of the chief orders of the Russian Empire.

Apart from these two great questions there is little to record of internal Russian politics. There has been an attempt to raise an outcry against the overwhelming German influence in official, as well as in commercial circles, and the fact that General Ignatieff, an ardent Philo-Slav, was at the direction of affairs, that the new

Czar was known to possess strong Old Russian sympathies, and equally strong antipathies to German predominance, and that his prime favourite was General Skobelev, at first served to raise the hopes of the Russo-Slav party, that the great Teutonic element which in Russia was gradually elbowing out true Muscovites of the chief responsible positions of the Empire would receive a severe check. Thus, the wild and warlike utterances of General Skobelev—first in Russia on the anniversary of the taking of Geok Tepé, in which he bitterly inveighed against Austria, and denounced that “Cosmopolitan Europeanism” which tries to force upon Russia all kinds of foreign theories in utter disregard of the nature and traditions of its people, and then again at Paris, in February, ostensibly to a deputation of Servian students. In this, as we have recounted above, he denounced Germany in the most unmeasured language, which aroused so great an outcry on the part of the Teutonic Powers that the Government found it necessary to repudiate all responsibility for his tirades. In a note in the official *Gazette* it was declared “that private utterances by persons having no authority from their Government to make them can naturally have no influence upon the general course of our foreign policy, nor can they affect our good relations with neighbouring states, which are based, not only upon ties of friendship existing between crowned heads and their clear perception of the interests of their people, but also upon the strict and mutual observance of existing treaties.” General Skobelev was at once recalled, and was told to avoid Berlin on his way back. Nevertheless, during his return journey he managed to make another speech, this time at Warsaw, to some Poles, whom he exhorted “to form one body with us, as Servia and Bulgaria should do. Are we not all brothers?” he asked, “you must consider that if there were no Russian garrison here you would have a German one.” On his arrival at St. Petersburg, General Skobelev received a popular ovation at the station, but his reception by the Czar at Gatchina is stated not to have been so favourable, his Majesty severely reprimanding him for his violence, and declaring that he had lowered his country in the eyes of Europe. Both the Czar, by letters of friendship and of apology to the Emperor William, and the St. Petersburg press by pro-German articles, now strove actively to restore the good feeling between the two empires. The foreign attention of Russia also now began to be directed towards England, and her action in Egypt. At first there was a great outcry on the part of the Anglophobist press, and although Russia joined the Conference it seemed at one time as though by withdrawing her representative she was about to officially protest against the isolated interference

of England by the bombardment of Alexandria. Subsequently, however, her tone was greatly modified, and while great jealousy of England and her successes was ever present, it was seen that any alteration of the *status quo* in Egypt in favour of England could be made an excuse for demanding further concessions in the Eastern Question, and, perhaps, for escaping from the hated thralldom of the Treaty of Berlin. The *rapprochement* of Russia towards her old allies, Germany and Austria, was undoubtedly furthered by the retirement of Prince Gortchakoff from the Ministry for Foreign Affairs; and the appointment of M. de Giers, of Teutonic origin, and of well-known German sympathies, was hailed with great satisfaction by both Austria and Germany, the *North German Gazette* remarking that M. de Giers enjoys the well-founded confidence of Europe, as a sincere promoter of national peace and of the friendly relations of the Russian empire to its neighbours. Prince Gortchakoff, though still retaining the nominal position of Chancellor, then retired from active duty after having served his country for sixty-five years. As an acknowledgment of the gratitude of the nation to the veteran minister, the Czar thanked him by an imperial rescript for the glorious services, which during his career he had rendered to the throne of the Fatherland. "They have often," wrote the Czar, "been recognised and solemnly acknowledged by the rescripts of my father of imperishable memory, and I appreciate them as highly; they have gained for you the respect and gratitude of your fellow-countrymen, and have set your name in the annals of history." Another Ministerial resignation, equally hailed abroad with rejoicing, was that of General Ignatieff, which took place in June. His successor, as Minister of the Interior, was Count Tolstoi who, though a by no means popular official, was regarded, both in and out of Russia, as a much more desirable man to be at the head of affairs than General Ignatieff, whose pronounced Slav opinions were always threatening to bring about serious difficulties between Russia and the German Powers, while his persecution of the Jews had caused Russia to be reproached by every Christian nation. The Slav party also experienced a great loss in their fearless champion, General Skobelev, who died suddenly, it is said from heart disease, at Moscow. The news created a great sensation throughout the country, his political eccentricities were for the time forgotten, and only his great military achievements, and the undaunted courage of the "white General," the idol of his troops, were remembered. His funeral was celebrated with great solemnity, and was attended by the Grand Dukes Nicholas and Alexis, the Minister of War, and a host of generals and celebrities,

the coffin being carried out from the church by the Grand Dukes and the chief generals.

The name of Skobelev almost naturally brings us to Central Asia and Turkestan, the scene of some of his greatest triumphs. Since the fall of Geok Tepé, there had been no further noteworthy military operations; the country was quiet, and the Turcomans, apparently were reconciling themselves to Russian rule. General Kaufmann, the Governor-General, died in May, and was succeeded by General Tcherniaeff. The Czar has now adopted the title of Sovereign of Turkestan, in virtue of which he has added the Asiatic emblem of the unicorn to the Imperial coat of arms. The Russians also are pushing their influence in Central Asia by commercial as well as by military means; railways are being constructed, and caravans despatched in fresh directions. Thus, the first caravan to Merv was highly successful, and the Mervians seemed peaceably disposed to Muscovite merchants. The much-discussed frontier treaty with Persia also was definitively settled, by which the entire district of the oasis of Akhal was accorded to Russia, together with a large district on the Attrek and its southern tributaries. To turn further north, the Kuldja difficulty with China was finally determined by the retrocession of the disputed territory to China, and its occupation in May by a force of 8,000 Chinese troops. Five thousand families, preferring to remain under Russian rule, emigrated under Government auspices to the province of Semiretschensk. The Chinese troops are said to have plundered and ill-treated Muscovite merchants on their entry, and to have behaved with such barbarity that a conflict with the Russians was with difficulty averted. In conclusion, we may mention the opening of the great National Exhibition at Moscow in June, and a prospective change in the Russian military organisation, by which the Russian cavalry, with the exception of the guards and the Cossacks, are to be transformed into dragoons, and armed with short rifles for infantry service. On July 13th a terrible railway accident took place on the Moscow-Kursk line, in which 178 persons lost their lives. The census of St. Petersburg, taken at the close of last year, gave the total population as 861,900 persons.



## CHAPTER IV.

## THE NORTHERN NATIONS, THE FAR EAST, ETC.

**Belgium.**—Compared with the stirring events which have taken place in Greater Europe, there seems little worth recording in the humdrum and everyday life of the nations of Northern Europe, and yet in each there have been political struggles and crises, seemingly all-important to the nations themselves, but of no effect or bearing whatever upon the outside world. In Belgium there has been the usual struggle between Liberals and Clericals, the former of whom gained a small advantage during the elections in June, the Liberal majority in the Lower Chamber being increased from fourteen to eighteen, while in the Senate their majority was seven instead of four. Other topics of interest have been a discussion on the condition of the English graves at Waterloo; a grand demonstration at Brussels in honour of a popular Flemish novelist, Conscience; the unveiling of a monument to the eccentric painter, Wiertz, at Ixelles; and a great fire at the Antwerp Docks on August 25th, when several grain warehouses and sheds containing timber and guano were destroyed.

**Holland.**—Little more has been stirring in Holland. There was a parliamentary discussion over the question of the British North Borneo Company, in which the Ministry, having been requested to communicate with Great Britain as to an exact delimitation of boundaries between this new colony and the Dutch territory in Southern Borneo, declared that as the British Government assured Holland that there was no question of proclaiming British sovereignty in the island, the Cabinet could not assume the responsibility of creating difficulties upon the question. Indeed, throughout the year the relations between Holland and Great Britain have been exceedingly cordial, and the country appears to have been drawn closer to England by the marriage of the Princess Helen of Waldeck (the Queen's younger sister) to the Duke of Albany. The King and Queen visited England in May to attend the wedding, but their stay was shortened by the death of another sister of the Queen, the Crown Princess of Wurtemberg. A grand reception had been organised for their Majesties by the Corporation of London, but this, of course, was abandoned. On Sept. 20th, however, the Lord Mayor (Sir John Whittaker Ellis), the Lady Mayoress, and

several civic notabilities, visited the Hague, to present to the King the gold casket containing the address of welcome from the Corporation to the King. In July the Dutch ironclad *Adder* left Ymuiden for Helvoetsluis, and was lost off the coast. How the accident happened will never be known, as her officers and crew of eighty men were drowned. In August a serious ministerial crisis occurred, and on the opening of the Dutch Parliament the King announced the intention of the Government to institute a commission to investigate the question as to what portion of the Constitution should be revised. A more promising parliamentary topic has been the campaign in Atcheen, where, on the 13th September, a great victory had been gained over the rebels, the chief Nyahassin being seriously wounded. The financial statement for the Dutch East Indies was scarcely so favourable, a large deficit being announced.

**Denmark.**—There has been a noteworthy Ministerial crisis in Denmark, owing to a disagreement between the Radicals on the one side, and the Government and Upper House on the other, on the interpretation of the Constitution. The Radicals sent an unacceptable finance bill to the Upper House, which the latter rejected. A conflict was thus threatened between the two Chambers, but as the Government, supported by the opinion of a great majority of the nation, showed itself determined, in case of emergency, to raise the necessary funds for the government of the country by a simple royal decree, the Radicals in the end gave way. Moreover, in September the elections to the Danish Upper House produced a signal majority for the Ministerial party. The great topic in Denmark, however, has been the scarcity in Iceland, owing to the severe winter of last year and the non-melting of the ice on the northern coasts of the island in the spring. Epidemics of small-pox and measles increased the distress, while, owing to the want of fodder, the cattle and ponies suffered severely. In the northern portion of the island, where the summer was cold and wet, the hay harvest utterly failed.

**Norway.**—Here, also, the political situation has been exceedingly critical throughout the year. Contrary to the general rule in other countries, the rural population is intensely Radical, while the townspeople are equally Conservative. This arises in a great measure from the townspeople wishing the financial burdens of the country to be laid on the land, while the farmers, who in Norway are the landowners, are naturally desirous that they should be transferred to the shoulders of the merchants. Again,

there is a latent jealousy of Sweden, which is eminently Conservative and warmly attached to the reigning dynasty. Thus a Republican feeling has been gradually on the increase amongst the Norwegians, and this has been by no means lessened by the endeavours of the Storting or Norwegian Parliament to call in question the King's right of absolute veto to a measure of which he may not approve, such for instance as the proposed Bill authorising the Ministers to take part in the debates—a privilege which at present they do not possess. The session was chiefly noteworthy for the refusal of the Deputies to vote the increase to the Crown Prince's allowance consequent on his marriage, and the manifest hostility of the Deputies to the existing régime. On closing the Storting, King Oscar made one of the most angry royal speeches on record. He declared that latterly the development of the country had been impeded by the attempts of the Storting to restrict his Constitutional rights. For himself, he intended to defend the Constitution, and he called upon all good citizens to support his efforts to secure the benefits derived from it. To this speech the Norwegians made a significant reply by electing a strong Radical majority, and considerable apprehension was excited by this, more especially as a prominent member of that party was the well-known writer, Bjornstern-Bjornson, who had openly avowed his intention of overthrowing the Bernadotte dynasty in Norway, and to cancel the existing union between Norway and Sweden. As a contrast to this, Stockholm celebrated the silver wedding of the King and Queen with great festivities in June. The only other incidents worthy of mention were the failure of the crops last year in Sweden, which caused great distress throughout the country; the warm welcome accorded by Sweden to the Crown Prince and his bride, the Princess Victoria of Baden, on their home-coming last October; and the sinking of a new mail steamer, the *Malmöhus*, while on her trial trip in Kalmar Sound, fifteen persons being drowned.

Corea.—In the Far East, the little country of Corea has almost monopolised public attention. This peninsula, which is a semi-dependence of China, to whom it pays tribute and accords certain feudal rights, is nevertheless autonomous, and is governed by its own sovereign. The Coreans may be said to be the most exclusive people in the world. Like the Chinese and Japanese of old, they have ever been opposed to any interference from the outer world, and especially to the commercial invasion of the "Barbarians," to whom they have declined to open their ports. Threats have proved of no avail.

but, in 1876, the thin edge of the wedge was introduced in the shape of a treaty with Japan; in June, also, the king, who seems imbued with a more advanced spirit than his forefathers or his present fellow-countrymen, astonished both the eastern and even Western world by accepting a treaty of commerce with the United States, and this was followed by an announcement that a similar treaty had been concluded with Great Britain at the same time, and later on with Germany. When compared with those of western nations, these treaties appear meagre, and suitable to the middle ages rather than to the 19th century. With a country such as Corea, however, the fact that any treaty at all has been concluded may be looked upon as great a step towards civilisation in one of the darkest corners of the world. Four ports are to be opened for foreign commerce, and consuls are to be permitted to reside in certain towns. All travelling in the interior is forbidden, and the opium traffic is strictly prohibited. Eternal peace and friendship is declared, with the subsequent stipulation, that if either nation has a difficulty with a third power, the other will lend its good services to bring about a solution. This clause, we fancy, gives the key to the change of policy pursued by the Korean Government. For many years Russia has cast loving eyes at this flourishing peninsula, which adjoins her own territory in Eastern Siberia. Russian ships have surveyed the coasts, and there has been more than one scare, that in the event of any disagreement with China, Russia would first seize the coveted port of Lazareff, one of the most commodious harbours on the Pacific coast, as a preliminary step to annexing the whole of the country. By thus creating an international interest in Corea, China and her able prime minister, Li-Hung-Chang, at whose instance the Korean Government manifestly yielded, foresaw that two strong allies at least would be secured, both of whom would vigorously oppose any annexation policy on the part of Russia. Though the prejudices of the Korean Government were thus overcome, those of the Koreans themselves were by no means so easily allayed. Thus, in August, an insurrection broke out in Corea, the Queen and several notables were murdered, while the Japanese legation was attacked by the mob, compelled to fly to another town, whence they put to sea, and finally found a refuge on board H.M.S. *Flying Fish*. The king's life was spared, but the heir-apparent and his betrothed wife were poisoned, while thirteen Ministers of State were killed during the rioting. As might be imagined, the news created the most intense excitement in Japan, and warlike preparations began at once to be made. Finally, however, the quarrel was arranged by a pecuniary indemnity being

promised. The insurrection was mainly due to a strong anti-foreign party, headed by a very influential Korean statesman; and the chief rancour of the malcontents appeared to be directed against the Japanese, who, by their high-handed and contemptuous conduct had earned for themselves the hatred of the Koreans.

**China.**---In this country the chief event has been the death of the prime minister's mother, Chinese customs requiring a son on the death of his maternal parent to go into mourning for three years, and to abstain from all business whatsoever. Li-Hung-Chang is one of the most liberal-minded as well as the most talented statesmen which China has ever seen, and twice his request to fulfil his sacred filial duties was refused by the Regency. A third application, however, was more successful, and he was relieved of the offices of Governor-general of the metropolitan province, and of the grand Secretaryship of State, being still, however, endowed with the duties of Imperial Commissioner for foreign trade and Commander of the Forces for the district of Tientsin. We have already treated of the Chinese re-occupation of Kuldja, in accordance with the treaty with Russia, and another foreign topic has been the passing of the Chinese Exclusion Bill in the United States, which will practically prohibit any further emigration to that El Dorado of Chinese peasantry. In the interior, as far as the outside world knows, China has been quieter than usual. The establishment of another Chinese daily newspaper at Shanghai has been chronicled as a further progress of Western ideas, there being now three in that town: the *Shen Pao*, which was the first to be started, having a daily circulation of ten thousand. Another enterprise, however, the Kaiping coal mines, nearly came to an end through religious superstition. This venture, which was the first attempt to develop the vast mineral resources of China, is carried out with native capital, and though worked by foreign engineers and foreign machinery, is intended to be solely for the benefit of the celestials themselves. So flourishing were the first results, that the shares went up to 85 per cent. premium, when suddenly a memorial was presented to the Emperor, denouncing the opening of the mines as disturbing the protecting dragon of the district, and, what is more, as interfering with the repose of the lately-deceased Empress, in consequence of which sacrilege an unusual amount of sickness was stated to have prevailed in the Imperial Palace. By the latest reports, however, it is stated that a golden *douceur* had softened the offended dragon, and that the difficulties in the way of carrying out an enterprise so beneficial to the nation at large are likely to be

eventually overcome. A wholesome feature in modern Chinese life is the growth of a new class, which bids fair to become a power in the State, and a power favourable to the furtherance of Western enterprise and ideas. The class in question is formed of the merchants who have made large sums by foreign trade, and who are likely to oppose any reversion to old Chinese restrictions on trade or commercial enterprise. The Government also cannot but recognise the value of foreign trade as a source of revenue, as within the last score of years the customs receipts have more than doubled; while that the old jealousy and hatred of the foreigner and his devices is gradually disappearing is again manifest by the institution of a new decorative order, entitled the Order of the Double Dragon, which has been especially created for bestowal on foreigners of distinction, or upon those who have rendered conspicuous services to the Chinese Empire.

In conclusion, the only other extra-European incidents which we need mention is a scare amongst the French colonists of Réunion that England was about to assist the Queen of Madagascar to subdue the unruly west coast tribes of the latter island, and thereby gain a footing on a territory which the worthy denizens of Réunion have always looked upon as almost their own property—that district being affectionately termed the “nursing-mother of Réunion.” Thus, when an American ship attempted to unload a cargo of Remington rifles, which had been ordered by the Madagascar Government, the commander of the French man-of-war *Forfait* refused to permit them to be landed. Owing to the firm attitude of the American consul, however, he did not fulfil his threat of firing upon the vessel in question. The French inhabitants subsequently addressed a petition to the Paris Government, asking for active interference, as French influence was in danger of being annihilated. On her side the Queen Ranavola has sent a mission to Paris to complain of the high-handed conduct of the French officials. France, though it claims no actual territory in Madagascar, professes to have the right of exercising a protectorate over certain portions of the island by virtue of treaties concluded with a former sovereign, but which are repudiated by the Queen and the ruling race the Hovas. Farther north, off the coast of Zanzibar, occurred on December 3rd the sad death of Captain Brownrigg, of H.M.S. *London*, and several of his crew, while attempting to board an Arab slave-dhow from a steam pinnace. He had run aside the dhow, which was flying French colours, to verify her papers, when a score of Arabs jumped into the boat with drawn swords and clubbed guns, and although Captain

Brownrigg fought like a lion, he was eventually shot through the heart and fell dead, having received twenty wounds.

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## CHAPTER V.

### THE UNITED STATES.

THE death of General Garfield and the accession to the Presidency of General Arthur, Vice-President, were still the prominent political topics in the United States at the date when this record begins. On October 8 Guiteau was formally indicted at Washington for the murder of President Garfield. This man—to state his full name, Charles James Guiteau—was a native of the state of Illinois, of French-Canadian lineage, an attorney by profession, resident at Chicago. He had long taken a busy part in the “caucuses” and canvassings of the Republican party in his section of the country; and, in return for the political services thus rendered, had sought the appointment of a consulship from the Government. Bent on soliciting the influence and recommendation of prominent members of his party in Congress, he had been staying during the early summer in Washington. Here he met with no encouragement, owing to the attitude of firm opposition shown by President Garfield to anything savouring of corruption in the distribution of official patronage, the immediate effect of which was seriously to disconcert certain of the more prominent Republican leaders, at whose head stood Mr. Conkling, Republican senator from the State of New York. The politicians of this State, which from its population derives a large share of power in the House of Representatives at Washington, had been accustomed to claim, as the rewards of party allegiance, many important public offices, nominally in the gift of the President, but really dispensed by the senators of the State acting with the Government for the time being. With this arrangement General Garfield interfered. Mr. Conkling, finding his nomination to various official appointments in New York State resisted in the Senate and not endorsed by the President, resigned his senatorship; but he stood again for re-election supported now by the Democratic party in opposition to General Garfield. Guiteau, being disappointed of his suit for the consulship, enlisted himself on the side of the malcontents; and, according to his own confession, resolved to kill President Garfield in order that Mr. Arthur (whose views were generally held to be in accordance with those of Mr. Conkling on this

question of political patronage) should become President by the rule of the United States Constitution. On July 2, while President Garfield was setting forth on a holiday journey to Long Branch, he was shot by Guiteau at the Washington dépôt of the Baltimore and Potomac railroad. After lingering more than two months, the President died on the evening of September 19.

The painful incidents of Guiteau's trial created a feeling of disgust throughout the American continent. After lasting seventy-two days it came to an end January 25, 1882, a verdict of wilful murder being returned by the jury. The proceedings were disgraced by scenes of the most disorderly character, in which the prisoner himself generally took the lead. Every means were resorted to by which the decision of the court might be delayed, and the ends of justice frustrated. A motion for a new trial was made before the presiding judges, and over-ruled. Later, Mr. Justice Bradley of the United States Supreme Court had before him an application by Guiteau's counsel for a writ of habeas corpus, which was refused. Finally, the convict's relations forwarded to the President what is alleged to have been documentary evidence of Guiteau's insanity; but the Cabinet, having considered that matter, refused to recommend a reprieve for reasons stated by the Attorney-General. It was not until June 30 that the last scene in this painful drama was brought to a close by the execution of Guiteau. His conduct on the scaffold was sufficiently extraordinary as to give rise to some doubts as to his sanity. But a knowledge of the facts makes it clear that Guiteau, when he shot President Garfield, had a perfectly practical view of the result and tendencies of his action. The emotion caused by the crime was nearly as strong in England as in the United States, and the frank expression of English sympathy has done much to strengthen the cordiality of feeling between the two countries. Both Houses of Congress unanimously passed a bill granting Mrs. Garfield, widow of the President, an annual pension of 5,000 dols.

General Chester A. Arthur, who, in virtue of his office, thus succeeded to the Presidency, was born in Albany in 1831. He was admitted to the Bar at an early age; and after the war (in which he served as Quarter-Master-General) became partner in a leading firm of New York lawyers. He was appointed Collector of the Port of New York by President Grant in 1872, holding the office till 1878, when he was removed by President Hayes because he was thought to be an obstacle in the way of that reform of the Civil Service which President



Hayes unsuccessfully endeavoured to effect. General Arthur, therefore, succeeded to office under somewhat discouraging circumstances. His address on taking the oaths of office created, however, a very favourable impression, more particularly as it foreshadowed no departure from the policy and aims of his lamented predecessor. "All the noble aspirations which found expression in his life," said President Arthur, "the measures devised and suggested during his brief administration to correct abuses and enforce economy, to advance prosperity and promote the general welfare, to ensure domestic security and maintain friendly and honourable relations with the nations of the earth, will be garnered in the hearts of the people, and it will be my earnest endeavour to profit, and to see that the nation shall profit, by his example and experience." President Arthur, after being sworn in, summoned the Senate to meet on October 10 for the election of one of their number to the vacant post of President of the Senate. They chose Senator Bayard, the Democrats having, for the time, a majority of two; but on the admission of the two Republican senators from New York succeeding Messrs. Conkling and Platt, Senator David Davis, as an Independent, was placed in the chair, and became Vice-President of the United States *pro tempore*.

The celebration of the centennial of the capitulation of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, Virginia, in 1781, took place on October 18, 1881, with imposing ceremonies, in presence of the President, his Cabinet, the governors of various states, and other high official personages. French and German descendants of those who assisted the Americans in the War of Independence were also present as guests of the nation. Orations were delivered, odes and anthems sung, a grand military review took place on shore, and a naval review on the river, and various festivities during the day, were closed with illuminations and fireworks in the evening. The crowning feature of the occasion was the reading at the conclusion of the ceremonies, by Mr. Secretary Blaine, of a general order from President Arthur as follows:—

"In recognition of the friendly relations so long and so happily subsisting between Great Britain and the United States, in trust and confidence of peace and goodwill between the two countries for all centuries to come, and especially as a mark of the profound respect entertained by the American people for the illustrious sovereign and gracious lady who sits upon the British throne, it is hereby ordered that at the close of these ceremonies, commemorative of the valour and success of our forefathers in their patriotic struggle for independence, the British flag shall be

saluted by the forces of the Army and Navy of the United States now at Yorktown; and the Secretary of War and Secretary of the Navy will give orders accordingly."

Seven war-vessels and numerous smaller craft took part in the naval review, including two French vessels of war. At a given signal the British flag was hoisted at the foremast-head of each ship; each fired a salute of twenty-one guns; the batteries on shore also honouring the ensign in the same manner. The French vessels took part in this courteous and gratifying act, the crowds on the bluffs giving hearty cheers. The celebration was closed by the band of the American flagship *Teuton* playing "The Marseillaise," "God Save the Queen," and the "Watch on the Rhine."

During the autumn (1881) session of the Senate, the report of Mr. Blaine, Secretary of State, in answer to the resolution of that body asking what steps would be taken to protect the rights of the United States in the Panama Canal scheme was published. The gist of the document consisted in a repudiation by the United States Government of the policy of a joint guarantee by the European Powers of the neutrality of the Isthmus of Panama, and of any inter-oceanic communication that might be there constructed. In a despatch to Mr. Lowell, United States Minister to Great Britain, dated July 24, 1881, Mr. Blaine remarks that, with regard to the political control of the Isthmus, the President feels called upon to speak with directness and emphasis. America would supply the largest part of the traffic to the canal; and it is the perception of this domestic function of the canal that has caused the project to be regarded as of vital importance to the United States Government. If the proposed canal were to be near the Old World the influence of the European Powers should be large. The case, however, is here reversed, and an agreement between the European States to jointly guarantee the neutrality, and in effect to control the political character of a highway of commerce remote from them, near to the United States, forming substantially a part of their coast line, and promising to become the chief channel of communication between the Atlantic and Pacific States, would be an extraordinary procedure, and would be necessarily viewed by the United States with the gravest concern.

The position thus taken up by the United States Government provoked some criticism in England, which was increased by the publication, on December 20, of a second despatch to Mr. Lowell. In this Mr. Secretary Blaine pointed out that the operation of what is known as the "Clayton-Bulwer Treaty"

practically concedes to Great Britain the control of any canal that may be constructed at Panama ; and he suggested that that Treaty having been made thirty years ago (1850) "under exceptional and extraordinary conditions," its terms must be reconsidered and adapted to present needs. Mr. Blaine claimed for America the right to erect land fortifications commanding the proposed canal ; and expressed a willingness to accept the guarantee of perpetual neutralisation of the Panama Canal such as is supposed to provide for the control of the Suez Canal. Mr. Blaine's views on this question were not maintained by the best and most accredited organs of public opinion in America ; nor did he meet with any greater measure of success in his attempts to act as arbiter of the complications between Chili and Peru.

The war between the two countries had resulted disastrously for the latter, and the United States Government had offered its friendly services as mediator. The Chilians, to recoup themselves for the losses of the war, had imposed certain conditions of peace involving large territorial acquisitions at the expense of Peru. The terms finally submitted to the Peruvian Government were as follows : The cession of Tarapaca in perpetuity ; the occupation of Peru as far as Moquegna until an indemnity of twenty million dollars had been paid ; and the possession of half the guano islands of Peru. While negotiations were pending, matters arising out of transactions and claims of an association calling itself the *Crédit Industriel*, and also of one *Shipherd*, to which it was stated the Peruvian Government was a party, were brought under notice of Mr. Blaine. A lengthened correspondence ensued between the Secretary of State and Mr. Hurlbut, United States Minister at Santiago, the essence of which was a desire expressed on the part of the Government of the United States that a landed indemnity from Peru should not be insisted upon. This being brought to light in the daily journals, gave rise to reports reflecting injuriously on the official conduct of Mr. Blaine, who, it was alleged, had exceeded his duties as Secretary of State in unnecessarily interfering in the disputes between Chili and Peru, entirely compromising the position of the United States as a friendly neutral. In the end Mr. Blaine was entirely exonerated by the House Foreign Committee (to whom the whole of this complicated matter was eventually referred for consideration) from any improper efforts to influence the action of his Government in favour of any private claim against Peru, as had been charged to his discredit.

Mr. Blaine having resigned, the attitude of the United States

with respect to the South American complications and the Panama Canal materially changed. The war between Chili and Peru had from the first been regarded with only languid interest by Americans generally, who seemed to feel little sympathy with Mr. Blaine's views and aspirations. At a later date, Mr. Frelinghuysen, his successor, continued the correspondence with Great Britain upon the subject of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, contending that it should be considered as at an end, and that each country should return to the position it occupied before the Treaty was made. This question is still under discussion between Great Britain and the United States.

President Arthur's Message to Congress (1881-82) opened with a feeling tribute to the memory of General Garfield, and alluded to the sympathy in the national grief shown by other nations, and especially by England. It recommended an increase of the army to 30,000 men, a thorough rehabilitation of the navy, and a stringent enforcement of the laws against the "barbarous system" of polygamy. Touching upon foreign affairs, the President referred to the South American complications and the Panama Canal question as subjects of grave national importance. He mentioned the English Civil Service system with approval, but considered it "hardly adaptable yet in America;" and spoke encouragingly of the financial prosperity of the country. The attention of Congress was invited to the subject of the decline of the merchant service, as one of the greatest importance; and the President recommended legislation with respect to the ascertainment and declaration of the Presidential votes, and a settlement of the question raised as to the succession to power during the illness or inability of the President. Congress having met, Mr. Kiefer was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives.

The Report of the Secretary of the Treasury presented to Congress revealed the interesting fact that the United States Debt will be paid off in ten years, if the present rate of redemption be maintained. The Immigration Statistics, published at the end of December, 1881, showed the total arrivals in the United States in that year to have been 440,000, the greatest hitherto known; and the amount of money brought by incoming emigrants was estimated at 9,000,000 dols.

The serious condition of affairs in Ireland in the early part of 1882 naturally excited a large share of public attention in America; and the activity of Irish sympathisers throughout the country was never, perhaps, more ostentatiously or vigorously displayed. An Irish National Conven-

tion, representing all factions of the Irish Revolutionary party in the United States, met at Chicago, and warmly endorsed the action of the Land League in Ireland, encouraging further hostile measures against England. One practical result of the Convention was an attempt in various parts of the country to raise 250,000 dols. to be added to the funds of the League. Mr. T. P. O'Connor, M.P., attended as a delegate from the parent society. The extreme party, headed by O'Donovan Rossa, advocated the most criminal attempts against England, that person appealing to the Convention "not to overlook the extreme combustibility of London, whose destruction would appal the world and avenge seven centuries of wrong." It is perhaps unnecessary to add that the incendiary appeals of O'Rossa have been universally and severely condemned by the American, and better class of Irish-American, journals, some of the former insisting that the United States Government should intervene to put a stop to his published insults and scurrilities against a friendly Power.

The operation of the Irish Coercion Act having produced the arrest of certain American citizens in Ireland suspected of offences against the Act, a diplomatic correspondence between the United States and English Governments followed. President Arthur had earnestly requested that all imprisoned Americans should be speedily brought to trial. The provisions of the above-named Act gave power to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland to issue his warrant for the arrest of any person reasonably suspected of having been guilty, as principal or accessory, of high-treason, treason-felony, or of crimes punishable by law, and tending to interfere with, or disturb, the maintenance of law and order in Ireland. It was contended by the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, as a well-admitted principle of international jurisprudence, that aliens are subject in all respects to the municipal laws of the country in which they may happen for the time to be residing. Lord Granville quoted, in further argument of the right to hold the American suspects in Ireland amenable to the provisions of the Coercion Act, the fact that in 1861 certain British subjects were arrested during the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act throughout the Northern States; and Mr. Seward, in a note to Lord Lyons, then declared that these prisoners were treated "in the same manner, and with no greater or less rigour than American citizens."

Mr. Frelinghuysen officially announced, April 4, 1882, that the negotiations between the two Governments had been carried on in a perfectly friendly spirit, and that he hoped a result would be arrived at satisfactory and honourable to both. Upon the same day a mass meeting was held in New York "to protest against the

imprisonment of American citizens in British prisons." The Mayor of the city (an Irishman) presided, and made a speech referring contemptuously to Mr. Lowell's friendship with Lord Granville. Indignant speeches were made by many Democratic leaders, Congressmen, and others; and resolutions were adopted urging President Arthur to demand the prompt trial or release of the American suspects, denouncing Mr. Lowell, and demanding his recall. Letters of sympathy were read from Mr. Tilden, Mr. Conkling, and many Democratic public men, and a few from Republicans. In the end it was discovered that there had been a misunderstanding, and that the Americans said to be in prison (with the exception of one O'Connor, who had refused to leave Ireland) had been released some days before. The clamour for Mr. Lowell's recall, to which, however, the Government refused to give heed, did not cease for many weeks afterwards. His conduct was warmly defended by many of the ablest journals in the country.

The atrocious assassinations of Lord F. Cavendish and Mr. Burke in Dublin, May 6, created a profound feeling of horror throughout America, and placed Ireland, for the time, farther than ever beyond the hope of American sympathy. Despatches from all parts of the United States expressed the utmost detestation of the crime; and newspapers of all shades of opinion unanimously pronounced it to be most unfortunate for Ireland in its character and consequences. Mr. Mooney, president of the Irish Land League in America, issued a proclamation saying that the League in America declared "that the execrable and cowardly assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke had horrified the world, and was especially abhorrent to every true friend of Ireland." The proclamation exhorted the brethren in Ireland "to use every effort to bring the perpetrators to justice, and show their detestation of a fiendish act, which only an idiot, or an enemy to Ireland could have conceived, or executed." Mr. Mooney sent a cable despatch to Mr. Gladstone to the same effect. The Land League branches in all parts of the country held meetings, and denounced the assassinations. The Irishmen of Boston published a "card," offering £1,000 reward for the apprehension of the murderers, or any of them. They further called a public meeting in that city to denounce the crime. A great Irish meeting was also held in New York, at which resolutions were passed denouncing the murders as the work of the enemy of Ireland, and declaring that the Irish in America had no responsibility for or sympathy with the assassination.

On the other hand, the Council of the Fenian Brotherhood in

the United States, issued an address, which was said to have emanated from O'Donovan Rossa. It reproved all Irishmen for speaking of the Dublin assassination as a murder, saying, "Call it rather the wrath of God following in the footsteps of the oppressor. Let us clothe ourselves in sables, ay, in sackcloth and ashes, for our own dead, not for the enemy's."

The "Chinese Exclusion Bill," which originated in California, where Chinese immigration has had, it is claimed, a prejudicial influence upon public morals, and has also made it difficult for white labourers to support life, was one of the most important measures presented to the United States Legislature in 1882. The original Bill, which was passed by Congress, but vetoed by the President, provided that, after ninety days from the passage of the Act, the coming of Chinese labourers to the United States should be suspended for twenty years, and prescribed a penalty of imprisonment not exceeding 500 dollars against the master of any vessel bringing any Chinese labourer to the country during that period. Teachers, students, travellers, diplomatic agents, and Chinese labourers, who were in the United States on November 17th, 1880, were excepted from the prohibition, but were required to produce passports from the Government of China indorsed by the diplomatic representative of the United States in China. The Bill also forbade the admission of the Chinese to citizenship by any court in the United States, and construed the words Chinese labourers to mean both skilled and unskilled labourers and Chinese employed in mining. The most intelligent sentiment of the country condemned this Bill as contrary to the spirit of the Constitutional amendments, and inconsistent with American traditions. On April 4, President Arthur sent a message to Congress vetoing the Bill on the ground that it would be virtually prohibitory if it became law, and not only undemocratic and hostile to American institutions, but probably injurious in its effects on commerce with China. He therefore suggested that if immigration must be suspended, it should be experimentally, and for a definite period. The President's veto caused intense excitement in California, which was increased when an effort made in the Senate to pass the Bill over the President's veto proved unsuccessful. On the following day a senator from California introduced a new Bill similar to that vetoed by the President, but fixing the term of the suspension of immigration at ten years. This Bill passed both Houses, and was signed by the President May 8, 1882.

The United States have not been exempt from what appears to be the common curse of the last year—secret political

crime. On April 29 an attempt was made to kill or injure Mr. Cyrus Field and Mr. William H. Vanderbilt by means of so-called infernal machines sent through the New York Post Office. One of the machines exploded in the mail-bag *en route*, fortunately without injury to life; an examination of the bag disclosed the other, which was returned to the General Post Office and opened with due precaution. These attempts, and another, a few days afterwards, aimed at the life of the superintendent of New York police, were found to be the work of German Socialists. Later, an anonymous post-card addressed to the President was stopped by the Post Office authorities. It threatened the President with death unless he complied with the demands for the recall of Mr. Lowell and the release of American suspects in the prisons of Ireland.

According to the Census Bureau revised report issued towards the end of May, 1882, the United States population statistics show an area of 2,900,170 square miles. The population is 50,155,783, the number of families 9,945,916, and of dwellings 895,912 being an average of  $17\frac{1}{4}$  persons to each dwelling. An interesting statement of the Census Office discovers the fact that Germans and Irish form over one-third of the entire population of New York city. In noting the material prosperity of the country during the past twenty years, the Returns give the total valuation of the farmers in the United States in 1860 as 3,271,575,426 dols., in 1870 as 9,262,803,861 dols., and in 1880 as 10,197,161,905 dols. The census valuation of 1870 was made at a time of great inflation in prices, owing to the existence of depreciated currency, as compared with the gold standard; hence, on the same basis of values as prevailed in 1860, and in 1880, it is quite probable the total valuation should be stated at about 6,000,000,000 dols. Owing to the large breadth of wild land converted into grain fields, and owing to the unprecedented increase in the value of farming land in some of the older states, like Illinois and Iowa, it would be safe to say that to-day the total valuations of the farms of America is fully 13,000,000,000 dols.

The most striking increase in the number of farms has taken place in the South and the North-Western and Pacific States. The increase is shown to be 102 per cent. in Alabama, 91 in Arkansas, 129 in Florida, 98 in Georgia, 70 in Louisiana, 50 in Mississippi, 68 in North Carolina, 81 in South Carolina, 60 in Virginia, and 185 in Texas. The figures show the great extent to which the once great plantations in the South have been cut up since the war into small farms. The greatest multiplication has taken place in the Territories; the rate of increase ranging



from 78 per cent. in Montana to upwards of 900 per cent. in Dakota. Considering the increasing interest everywhere now felt in the subject of farming and division of lands, these figures are of some importance.

Within a few weeks of each other died two of the most eminent American men of letters of the century—on March 24, 1882, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, poet; on April 27, 1882, Ralph Waldo Emerson, essayist and philosophical writer. Mr. Longfellow was born at Portland, Maine, Feb. 27, 1807. He studied law in his youth, but like many contemporary English and American writers who have begun life in that way, rather from necessity, or want of something better to do, than deliberate choice, he soon abandoned it for literature. In 1835, after three years sojourn in Europe, whither he had gone to study European languages and literature, he succeeded Mr. George Ticknor (whose work on Spanish Literature is well known) as Professor of *Belles Lettres* at Harvard, a post which twenty years later he vacated in favour of Mr. James Russell Lowell. Mr. Longfellow commenced his career as an author in 1824 while yet he was an undergraduate, and he continued to write almost to the last. A mere list of his works would occupy considerable space. They are thoroughly well known wherever the English language is spoken; and in Europe have attained a popularity greater perhaps than those of any contemporary English poet, or American writer. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge had both recognised Mr. Longfellow's poetic rank by conferring upon him honorary degrees; and he had been made the recipient of similar academic honours in his own and other countries. All his life the poet lived in the pleasant town of Cambridge, now almost a suburb of Boston, within view of Harvard University where he had spent so many years of his earlier manhood, first as student and afterwards as professor. At the Craigie House (his home since 1843, and a spot hallowed by many interesting historic traditions), in Cambridge, he died; and in the beautiful cemetery of Mount Auburn, almost within view of his picturesque residence, he lies buried, one of the sweetest singers of the century. It has been truly said of Mr. Longfellow that he was the most famous American of his time, and his fame had become a personal affection and a national pride. The sweetness, the refinement, the gentle and lovable qualities of his character strongly endeared him to those who came within the circle of his personal influence, and by those outside of it he was hardly less loved. His loss was deeply felt in every home in the country.

Emerson, one of Longfellow's earliest and most cherished

friends, had nearly reached the seventy-ninth year of his age when he died. He was born at Boston, May 25, 1803, was educated at Harvard University, after leaving which he became minister of a Unitarian congregation in the city of his birth. Within three years he resigned, and shortly afterwards visited Europe, where he made the acquaintance of Carlyle. On his return to America he declined longer to hold the position of a professional minister of Christianity, choosing instead that of lecturer upon social ethics and literary or biographical topics. His discourses of this class are unique, and may be said to have been the staple of his life's work, being published usually as essays, and not less eagerly read in Europe than in the United States. Ralph Waldo Emerson had probably almost as many disciples as Carlyle among the serious-minded English youth of thirty or forty years ago; indeed, it has been said of Emerson that he was essentially "the prophet and philosopher of young men." His writings entitled "Nature," "Self-Reliance," "Compensation," "Spiritual Laws," "Love," "Friendship," the "Over-Soul," "Man the Reformer," the "Conservative," and the "Transcendentalist" were the most characteristic examples of his tone of thought and style of expression. In 1847 Emerson went a second time to England, lecturing at Manchester and elsewhere on "Representative Men," Plato, Shakespeare, Goethe, Montaigne, and Swedenborg. Having returned to Massachusetts, he took up his abode at the quiet little village of Concord, and there passed the remainder of his life. He lived in constant association with all those eminent scholars, humourists, and critics—men of Boston or of the near University at Harvard, Longfellow, James Russell Lowell, Nathaniel Hawthorne, H. D. Thoreau, Agassiz, O. W. Holmes, Whipple, and the rest—whose works are now become almost as familiar to English as to American readers. A contemporary American author, his near relative, has noted the difference between the impression produced by Emerson's death and that of Longfellow. "There need be no dispute as to which was the greater and more original mind of the two; but where Emerson has one appreciator, Longfellow has a hundred. All New England, one might say, took to writing Longfellow's biography in the papers, and filled every spare corner with rhymed apostrophes and conjurations; Emerson's great spirit passed almost in silence. But it is a silence that does him no wrong. The honour that is due to him is not of the kind that lies at the tip of every sentimentalist's tongue. The measure of his loss is the manifest impossibility of ever finding his successor."

During the session of 1882 the evils of polygamy among the Mormons once more became a prominent subject of discussion in Congress. A committee of the Senate advised that very stringent measures should be taken for its suppression. They suggested, among other penalties, that no polygamist should be permitted to vote at the elections, or be eligible for any public office, or to sit on a jury; and that local magistrates should be empowered to dispense with personal testimony upon oath to the offence in such cases. A Bill for the Suppression of Polygamy was prepared, based more or less upon the suggestions in the above report, and submitted to the House of Representatives, and was passed. Notwithstanding the strong opinions expressed by the leaders of the Government and people of the United States against polygamy among the Mormons being permitted to continue, the number of proselytes to the Mormon faith has at no time been greater than within the past year. The majority of the recruits have come from Great Britain, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, and generally consist of ignorant persons persuaded by Mormon missionaries in Europe. Out of the 143,000 inhabitants of Utah 112,000 are Mormons, and there are 6,000 more in Colorado, and 1,900 in Arizona. There are also colonies of Mormons in New Mexico, Idaho, Nevada, and Wyoming, as well as in Georgia, Tennessee, and other Southern states where Mormon missionaries are appointed. The subject is one which still commands the earnest attention of the United States Government.

Persecution of the Jews in Russia led to a large immigration of Russian-Jewish refugees to the United States in the spring of 1882. These unfortunate persons were aided partly by contributions of the charitable in England and other parts of Europe, partly by subscriptions of the benevolent in America. They arrived in New York so rapidly, having fled from Russia in vast numbers and great haste, that much trouble was experienced in providing for them. A refugee colony was founded in Louisiana; and many of these Jewish emigrants settled in New Jersey, and at Vineland, where small fruit and market gardens flourish, at about thirty-five miles from Philadelphia. The agent of the Hebrew Benevolent Society in New York reported that they were difficult persons to manage. Half of them had no trade. They had literally nothing of their own, and expected that money would be given them. In Europe they had heard America spoken of as the land of promise, and imagined they had but to arrive there to have all their needs at once supplied. Some of the refugees having attacked and unmercifully beaten the agent of the Israelite society in New York caring for them, some of

the ringleaders were arrested and sent to prison. In consequence of the indefensible conduct of these men, and some others who had supposed they would be supported indefinitely without work, the Russian Aid Society at New York finally determined that it would be no longer responsible for Russian-Jewish emigrants arriving in the city.

In the beginning of May, 1882, there were many indications throughout America of a general strike among labourers of all classes. This growing uneasiness in the relations of labour and capital culminated, May 31, in a general strike in the iron regions of Pennsylvania and the adjoining States, when 120,000 iron workers abandoned work. At Cleveland and Youngstown, in Ohio, and Wheeling, West Virginia, the iron-workers also struck, throwing about 20,000 more men out of employment. Efforts were made to compromise the troubles, but in vain. Three firms of steel manufacturers having contracts which required to be met yielded to the demands of the strikers; but these firms employed comparatively few men. All the great iron manufacturers refused to yield; and the result was that 150,000, with 50,000 dependent women and children, were thrown out of employment. The iron manufacturers resolved upon decisive action. They met in secret sitting at Pittsburg. Seventy delegates were present, representing all the large iron industries of the country, who decided on establishing an organisation for mutual protection against the aggression of the Amalgamated Association of Labourers. A constitution was adopted, and a resolution passed to resist any advance in the scale of wages by a practically unanimous vote. Many delegates favoured check-mating the strike by proposing a reduction in the present scale, but this suggestion was not generally supported.

While the labourers could show but 300,000 dols. in the treasury wherewith to support their cause, on the side of the manufacturers there was an enormous array of capital. The delegates at the Pittsburg meeting represented mills which employed 40,000 workmen, and had a capital of 35,000,000 dols. The strikers generally behaved well. The only disturbance recorded was a riot near Chicago. A gang of fifty strikers attacked a party of twenty non-union men who were returning from work by railway. When the train stopped at the station the strikers surrounded it, took possession of the locomotive, and prevented the engine driver from starting by holding pistols at his head. The carriage was entered, and the non-union men were dragged out and severely beaten. Stones were thrown, and twenty or thirty shots were fired. One shot hit and dangerously

wounded a district judge who was a passenger in the train. On June 17 a great labour demonstration was made at Pittsburg, when 20,000 working men marched in procession. All branches of labour were represented and classified in five separate divisions. The Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, then on strike, numbering about 10,000 men, composed the fifth division. All in the procession were well dressed and orderly, and according to report there was not a single intoxicated man in the whole 20,000. The behaviour and appearance of the men were warmly praised, and the demonstration is said to have been imposing. This strike lasted from June 1st to September 12th, 1882, when it was announced in the daily journals that the men were returning to their work at the old rates, and against the orders of the Amalgamated Association of Labourers. The manufacturers were thus completely triumphant; and it was generally admitted that trades-unionism had suffered the severest defeat it has yet experienced in America. The strike of the iron-workers was followed by several other strikes, the most important and prolonged of which was that of the freight-handlers on the railroads. The sympathy of the public was a good deal with these men.

Congress having come to the conclusion that education is not so universal as it should be in the United States, and that it is expedient to lend some assistance to some of the less wealthy states, requested the Committee on Education and Labour to prepare a report on this subject. A report was accordingly agreed to and laid upon the table of the House, the purport of it being a recommendation that a sum of 10,000,000 dols. should be annually voted for a period of five years for educational purposes. This sum would be divided proportionately among the different states of the Union which have the greatest number of uneducated inhabitants. The Committee report that, according to the returns of the last Census, there were 6,230,000 persons over ten years of age—or an eighth of the total population—who could neither read nor write, and three-fourths of this number are inhabitants of what were formerly the Slave States. More than a fourth of the total population of these States is uneducated. This unsatisfactory condition of things appears to have engaged the earnest attention of Mr. John F. Slater, of Norwich, Connecticut, one of the leading cotton manufacturers of America. This gentleman, with a munificence seldom equalled, has decided to give a million dollars for the education of the coloured people of the Southern States. He proposes to put the fund in the hands of ten trustees, including ex-President Hayes, Chief Justice Waite, and other prominent men. The fund will be

amply sufficient to sustain from fifty to seventy-five teachers and ministers yearly in the South. Some of the trustees have made a special study of the Southern negro problem, and all agree that the fund is capable of doing great good.

The question of Protection and Free Trade still continues to be a prominent political topic in the United States, and its importance is hardly likely to decrease with the onward march of events. A Tariff Commission Bill was passed during the last session by the House of Representatives, providing for the appointment of Commissioners, to investigate the question of the tax on imports. Before Congress adjourned, the President appointed the members of the Commission, with Mr. Wheeler, the ex-Vice-President, at their head. Eight or nine members are avowed Protectionists, and the others have Protection leanings. Three are directly connected with the wool industry, one with the iron industry, one with the sugar trade, and others favour protected industries generally. The Commission cannot be otherwise than satisfactory to the Protectionists. The Free Traders, on the other hand, feel aggrieved with the President for appointing the very men who are avowedly antagonistic to their interests.

The year 1881-2 has not passed without several disasters in America. The most serious was an inundation of unprecedented extent in the valley of the Mississippi. Large areas of the best cotton-lands of Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana, were submerged, and 60,000 persons were, for a time, said to be homeless and destitute. The Government was obliged to come to the rescue, and issued tents and rations to those in need, continuing this aid until the subsidence of the waters. There were some indications that near Vicksburg the river would follow a new course along Grant's Cut-Off Canal, thereby leaving a large town far removed from navigation, on which it depends almost entirely for its commerce. This apprehension was fortunately not realised. At the beginning of the summer an express train from Long Branch to New York, consisting of one Pullman car and five ordinary passenger carriages, ran off the line while crossing the bridge over Parker's Creek, and all the carriages were precipitated into the water. The fall was about ten feet, and the water was only four feet deep. The carriages fell on their sides, and many of the passengers were injured and three killed. General Grant was in the smoking carriage, and fell into the water breast high, but was drawn out through the window uninjured. There were destructive tornadoes in some parts of the country, one at Emmetsburg in June resulting in loss of life and much injury to property. A great fire occurred at Richmond, Virginia, destroying the Petersburg railroad bridge, several factories and flour mills, ironworks and dwelling houses.

## SCIENCE OF THE YEAR.

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THE progress of modern discovery is so rapid that twelve months is more an era in the history of science than was a cycle in the pre-Linnean days. In every civilised country there are thousands of trained observers hard at work, silent until the time comes for their turn to speak out, each contributing his quota to the vast pile of facts from which, in the fulness of time, some master mind rears the spacious fabric which becomes for all future ages a landmark on the road along which every student must travel. These busy folk are, it is true, but the hodmen of science. They mix the mortar, and they bear the bricks, and wait until the architect comes to give form to the shapeless masses which they have been so laboriously accumulating. But the hodman is as essential to the builder as the collector of facts to the theorist. A Darwin, a Helmholtz, a Lubbock, or a Steenstrup, would not have been possible, without the vast array of obscure toilers on the foundation of whose collective labours they have erected their epoch-marking theories. But in a brief review of the year's progress we can only take account of the most remarkable of their data. The writer of a guide-book notes the more famous châteaux, the most remarkable historic houses, and even the trees under which notable deeds have been done, or mounds around which, in the *juventus mundi*, the folk-motes used to be held. But he cannot record every hut in the landscape, keep tale of every tree in the forest, or describe all the stones in the most beautiful building, though every one of them is essential either to the character of the landscape, or to the *tout ensemble* of the palace. And so it is with science. Every fact helps to a greater fact, and out of the heap thus garnered grows the law which it is the object of the philosopher to discover.

Accordingly, in the following pages will be found only the chief facts of the year, and the most prominent generalisations which have survived the march of events which, in science as in history, is apt, before December ends, to roll "dull Lethe" over theories, and even "researches," which looked very specious while "the Ides of March were young." The past year has been a busy one. It is true that it will not be memorable for any discovery

so famous as the telephone, or any work so notable as the "Origin of Species." We have had our losses and our gains, but on the whole the profit has exceeded the loss. Facts which to-day seem trifling will, it may be in the near future, appear momentous, for in science, as in an unknown country, the traveller gropes along, never knowing when the mist is to lift on a fairer prospect than anything which has yet been seen, and too often, long after he has reached his journey's end, he finds to his chagrin that at some critical turning in the path he passed some remarkable feature with which it was left for a more fortunate successor to associate his name.

**Geography and Travel.**—During the past twelvemonth explorers have been busy in every part of the world. In pure science there are doubtless in store for us treasures infinitely greater than any which have been disinterred in the past. In geography it would be vain to affirm this. All the main features of our globe are very fully known. There are no continents to discover, no archipelago of islands with the tale of which to astonish the world, no silent seas for a new Balboa or a second Hudson to burst into. There are stories of Indian tribes—unconquered remnants of the bold race whom the Spaniards crushed—still living in their primitive freedom among their ancient towns in the most remote parts of Central America. But even permitting the widest credence to these exaggerated tales of excited aborigines, he must be a sanguine or an ignorant individual who hopes ever to light on an empire such as Cortes subdued, or a civilisation such as Pizarro crushed. All that remains for the nineteenth-century Cooks and Vancouvers, Da Gamas and Baffins, to do, is to track some great river more fully to its source, to trace the eastern or western, northern or southern, limits of some vast jungle, to survey more carefully some mountain chain, or to portray with the accuracy which modern navigators demand, the coasts of some already known continent or island. In the Far North, or the still Farther South, there are perhaps land patches, and seas which the sailor has never seen, or may never be able to reach, though even there the limits of human habitations have in every probability been reached. In the centre of New Guinea, Borneo, Australia, and perhaps South America, there are still considerable spaces in which the cartographer is fain—like the map-makers of Swift's day, who concealed their ignorance by placing on the blank interior of Africa "elephants instead of towns"—to believe there lies hid something good in his way, and there is perhaps no country out of the more populous parts of Europe, regarding which



it can be honestly declared there is nothing more to learn. The geographers of the past only sketched out the pictures: to their successors has been left the equally useful, though less striking task of filling in the details, and, it may be, correcting the rude drawing of these "old masters."

We know, for example, the limits of the Pacific or the Atlantic, but the deep-sea dredger of the *Challenger* order is hard at work making us acquainted with their profundity, and the results of his labours, as shown in the volumes of the late Sir Wyville Thomson's expedition now publishing, are certainly as interesting as if they had a more superficial novelty to reveal. Even as we write, the exploration of the bottom of the Faroe Channel by Mr. Murray and Commander Tizard, shows how much there is still to discover in seas close by our own shores. Carpenter and Thomson found that there existed in this region a warm and a cold area, apparently contiguous, the temperature of the cold area being about 16° Fahr. lower than that of the warm one, though the depth in both areas was nearly alike, viz., about 600 fathoms. The surface temperature was also similar in both areas, divergence in this respect not beginning until a depth of 200 fathoms had been reached. It was sought to explain the wide difference in the temperature of apparently contiguous areas, by supposing that cold water passing southward from the Spitzbergen seas welled into the Faroe Channel, where it was met by the north-easterly expansion of the warm Gulf-stream, and "that the one stream thus abutting upon the other, they were only separated from each other by a 'cold wall' formed by the partial mixture along the line of contact." However, during the *Challenger* voyage it was found that instead of the temperature gradually decreasing with depth until a bottom was reached, which is the normal arrangement in the ocean, the minimum temperature was obtained in 1,000 or more fathoms from the bottom, no change of temperature taking place at lower depths. In such cases the temperature of all neighbouring stations of similar depth would be found to differ by many degrees, just as in the cold and warm areas of the Faroe Channel. Accordingly, the generalisation was arrived at that "contiguous areas with widely different bottom temperatures are separated by submarine barriers, and that the depth at which the minimum temperature is found in one of the areas indicates the height of the barriers." The results of the recent investigations have substantially confirmed the correctness of this theory, warm and cold areas, each with a depth of 600 fathoms having been found, as was predicted, to be separated by a submarine ridge—named in honour of Sir Wyville Thomson—rising to within 200

fathoms of the surface. This ridge extends many miles in length, and rising to an average height of 2,400 feet above the ocean level on each side of it, forms a barrier, on the one hand, to the passage northward of all equatorial water below a depth of 200 fathoms, and on the other hand, to the southward passage of the icy waters of the Arctic Regions. The origin of the ridge is unknown, but it may be due to that favourite agent, ice—the nature of the heterogeneous mass of stones forming the barrier indicating it to be a moraine, that is, a mass of glacier borne or pushed rubbish, on a very large scale. In the Caribbean Seas and elsewhere these deep-sea dredgings have been carried on, with sufficiently remarkable results. The “Sargasso Sea,” which astonished the ancient mariners, and made even their stout hearts quail, conceals, a thousand fathoms downward, things infinitely more wondrous than are seen on the surface. Strange beasts, for which strange names must be devised, come struggling in the meshes of the net, and cling desperately in mistaken confidence to the tags of tow, blinking in the light of day, when they have any eyes to blink, but formed wondrously for life in the ocean caves—neither “dark,” as we now know, nor “unfathomed,” as they once were—which they inhabit. What we have as yet got must be as nothing to what must be still lying *perdu*. The chalk which we know as a formation on dry land is found to be forming at the present moment among the “globigerina” ooze on the bottom of the ocean, by the accumulation of the dead shells of the minute “foraminifera” of which it is composed. It may be, as indeed the chances are all in its favour, that before long we may drag up from some unsuspected depth some animal which has been lying since cainozoic ages, unchanged and unevolved into the higher being which, according to the fashionable doctrine, it should have assumed long ago, though if it is rudely to disturb theories which “all intelligent men hold,” the advent of so unwelcome a prisoner is barely desirable.

The Arctic Region is still the land where the filling-in process goes on apace, though indeed the hard outlines leave little space for the shading. Yet every summer we have something new from the Far North. Either, as in the course of last year, the Danes have been able to penetrate the vast glacier which covers Greenland like a winding-sheet, to the islet peaks in the midst of the ice which are known as the “Nunataks” of Dalager and Jensen, though this great continental waste is still the widest unexplored stretch in the world, and the last essayed, or we are startled by such a story as that which an English yachtsman had to relate in August. Seven years ago the Austrian expedition on board

the *Tegetthoff* got frozen in the sea east of Novai Semlai, and remained for two years in hopeless *duress*. Suddenly, during the second spring, while the men were leaning over the sides, despairing of ever again seeing their homes, the mist broke, and to their astonishment there appeared in the near distance the cliffs of a wild new land, noisy with Arctic birds, and the shores littered with seal and walrus. This country, the existence of which was hitherto unsuspected, was reached and partially explored. It was perhaps as dreary a birthplace of icebergs as the world can show, bare, and glacier-riven, and evidently consisting of an archipelago of islands separated by wide sounds. The Austrians named it, in honour of their sovereign, "Franz Josef Land," and only the necessity of effecting their escape compelled them to leave its further exploration to others. However, until the year 1880, no man ever again touched its shores, when Mr. Leigh Smith, an English yachtsman, accomplished that feat, and sailed for some distance along its western coast. He was, however, forced to hasten south, from lack of facilities for wintering. Again, in June, 1881, he tried the same experiment, better provided. Not returning in the autumn, his friends, aided by the Admiralty, fitted out the steamer *Hope*, under the command of Sir Allen Young, for his assistance, and, if possible, his rescue. The relief expedition sailed on June 22nd, 1882; but, before they were able to effect their object, the Dutch exploring schooner, *Willem Barents*, had sighted the long-lost adventurers on the shores of Novai Semlai, and restored them to their countrymen. The tale they had to tell was an interesting one. With singular good luck they had been able to reach Franz Josef Land within ten days of touching the Arctic ice, and all seemed to augur a prosperous voyage, when suddenly they got jammed in the floes off Cape Flora, and before even the most necessary provisions could be tossed ashore, the *Eira* sunk, and left her crew without anything but the few trifles they had been able to save on one of the loneliest and most desolate spots on the face of the earth. Driftwood was, however, discovered, and of this they constructed a roomy hut in which they wintered. Bears, seals, and walrus supplied abundance of food and fuel, and the active exercise which their pursuit necessitated prevented scurvy. The result was that by next June they were able to leave their temporary home in excellent health, and after an adventurous journey, accomplished partly by sailing on open "leads," partly by dragging their boats over the ice, they reached Novai Semlai, and were picked up and restored to their country almost on the very day—August 21st—on which, twelve months before, they had met

with such a terrible mishap. Naturally little or nothing could be done for the purpose of geography. Franz Josef Land is still as mysterious as ever, but the voyage of the *Eira*, if one of the most luckless on record, is yet one of the most successful, for with the exception of one man who died soon after reaching Aberdeen of disease not contracted on the voyage, the adventurers returned as they had set out, not one missing, not one the worse of their terrible experience. The voyage proved, moreover, that private expeditions well conducted can accomplish even more than those equipped at great cost, and hampered rather than helped by their cumbrous discipline and a pretentious *personnel* of officers and seamen.

Whether Franz Josef Land is a small collection of islands, or extends much farther north, has still to be settled. Lieut. Hovgaard of the Royal Danish Navy is of the latter opinion. He considers, from observations collected by Nordenskjöld's expedition in the *Vega*, that north of Cape Chelyuskhin on the Siberia coast, lies a land extension not improbably connected with Franz Josef. To test this theory, he left in July on board a small vessel, the *Djmphna*, but as he is already frozen in the Kara Sea, at best we must wait for another year before the problem can be solved, or its solution attempted in earnest.

The past year has revealed the fate of the hapless expedition which Mr. Gordon Bennett despatched two years ago on board the *Jeannette*. Leaving San Francisco in July, 1880, this finely equipped steam yacht entered the Arctic Ocean north of Behring Strait, and steered for the north-east. Soon, however, she got helplessly embedded in the pack ice, and there remained drifting about until the summer of 1881, when she was crushed and sank. The crew then took to their boats, but getting separated in a storm, only two of them reached the Lena delta. One of these, under the command of chief engineer Melville, fell in with natives and was cared for. The other, under the commander, Lieut. De Long, was not so fortunate. After vainly struggling against hunger and privation the crew halted, and sent forward two of their number to seek for succour. This, after terrible hardships, they obtained; but when the relief party reached those they had left behind, all that was found of De Long and his companions were their dead bodies. The Siberian delta has been searched, but no trace of the third boat has been seen. Most probably it foundered in the storm mentioned. The expedition has earned little for science, though it has added a terrible page to the tale of Arctic adventure. Beyond coming across one or two petty islets not noticed before, they have in no way

extended our acquaintance with Arctic geography, though one of the expeditions sent in search of them, by circumnavigating Wrangell's Land, has proved that this spot on the map is a moderately sized island instead of—as Petermann imagined—an extension of Greenland, which, indeed, Nares all but proved—as had been pointed out (“Arctic Papers, R. G. S.” p. 70) on theoretical grounds before he started would probably be the case—to terminate in about  $81^{\circ}$  N. lat.

These misfortunes will, however, not put a stop to Polar exploration. Already the Antarctic region is attracting attention, and though Lieut. Bove has had the misfortune to suffer shipwreck on the very threshold of his chosen field, those far southern ice waters and volcanic isles, which forty years ago Ross sighted in the land of desolation round the Antarctic Pole, may yet be reached and examined with results which cannot fail to be infinitely more interesting than anything which we have discovered in the north, during late years at least.

Nevertheless, a certain class of *savants* consider that geographical exploration of the old sort is for the present at an end, and that something more systematic and scientific ought to begin. This has led to what is known as the Weyprecht system of international polar observations. The United States and the principal European nations have, after much consultation, each selected a station where magnetical and meteorological observations are to be taken from August, 1882, to August, 1883. By this means, it is believed, that better results can be obtained than by mere isolated efforts. Accordingly, Jan Mayen Island has been selected by Austria-Hungary; Godthaab, in Greenland, by Denmark; Lady Franklin Bay, in Smith's Sound, by the United States; Cumberland Sound by Germany; Great Slave Lake by England; Point Barrow by the United States; the Lena Mouth by Russia; Dickson Harbour, near the Yenesei, by Holland; Möller Bay, Novai Semlai, by Russia, as a branch station; Sodankylai, near the Arctic Circle, by Finland; Bossekop by Norway, and Spitzbergen by Sweden. Most probably, Germany will also have observers at some of the Moravian settlements in Labrador, and in addition, a station has been established by France, at Cape Horn, and on South Georgia Island, by Germany. Doubtless, this circle of circumpolar stations will eventuate in some benefit to physical and natural science, and indirectly to geography in the broadest acceptation of the term. The love of adventure, the yearning desire to penetrate farther and farther into the unknown, will, however, still remain unsatisfied by the scheme which the leader of the Tegetthoff Expedition formulated when

in the latter years of his life; he died, bitter with disappointed hopes. It is academical, but hardly comes within our province as geographers, and is moreover even more risky than legitimate explorations, since, as in the case of stations like Jan Mayen and Smith's Sound, it may not be always possible to succour the detached parties every year. This fear has been proved to be well founded by the fact of the relief expedition sent to the Lady Franklin Bay observers during this summer being unable to penetrate to within two degrees of their post, the intervening space being rendered impassable by ice.

The past twelve months have brought some useful additions to our knowledge of Asia. The trigonometrical survey of the Indian Empire is still proceeding. Colonel Stewart, in the disguise of an Armenian horse-dealer, has penetrated the frontier region of Khorassan, and the Tekke Turcoman country, and Mr. O'Donovan has published the latest and in some respects the only full account of the Turcoman capital of Merv, in which tumble-down collection of huts he lived for some time. The mountainous region watered by the northern tributaries of the Attrek is still an unknown land, though now that the Russians have completed their surveys for a railway into Central Asia, very little of this once thickly populated and comparatively well-known land will remain a mystery to modern geographers. Between the Persian and Afghan frontiers, and the Russian province of Turkestan, there have been during the last ten or twelve years exploring parties almost continuously at work, with interesting results, the chief of which are that some parts of the Steppes were found to be below the level of the Caspian, and that the famous Bami-dunya, or roof of the world, better known as the Pamir Plateau, is in reality broken up into ridges and narrow valleys, the ridges rising from 6,000 to 9,000 feet above the valleys, and the culminating points reaching in some cases the great height of 23,000 feet above the sea-level. Mr. Colquhoun's journey from Canton to Bhamo has opened up a country which, if not actually "new" in the geographical sense of the word, is a fresh route for the world's commerce. The connection of the Sanpo with the Irawadi has again been the subject of discussion, and the question is still about as open for debate as ever, a simple fact which proves how vague, even yet, is our acquaintance with the hydrography of the great rivers which lave the ancient kingdoms of Asia. A railway is projected through Siberia, which will be not only a remarkable celebration of the tercentenary of its conquest by the Cossack outlaw, Vassili Yermak, but a means of opening up one of the richest, though most misunderstood, regions of the world. In the course

of a few years, the wheat, the wine, the timber, and the ores of Siberia, which are too bulky to be conveyed overland on horseback, will be seen in the markets of Europe, and the black earth lands of such wondrous fertility will receive a large immigration from Western Europe. Siberia is penetrated by some of the greatest rivers in Asia, but unfortunately they all flow to the Arctic Ocean, so that for the purpose of navigation from Europe or America they are practically useless, though they are utilised during the summer months for a considerable local trade.

The discovery of Wiggins and Nordenskjöld, that for two months of autumn the ice generally drives off the coast, so as to prevent vessels from reaching the mouths of the Obi and Yenesei, was for a time believed to be the beginning of great things for Siberia. Unfortunately, the bad luck which attended the ventures of those who essayed the sea-route during the last few seasons has damped the ardour which the first news evoked, and the railway is now regarded as the main hope of a country which in civilised Europe is regarded as a dreary region, the grave of political and other exiles, but among the Russian peasantry is looked to as their Land of Promise. And here we may note the completion of the St. Gothard Tunnel has revolutionised the trade routes of Europe by opening up Italy to a commerce which hitherto could not well be developed, owing to the Alpine barrier which intervened between her and the customers for the products of her northern forests. The Panama Canal has been begun, though when a ditch through such a pestilential jungle can be completed, is a question which only a rash man will attempt to answer. The Isthmus of Corinth is also to be cut, and the Peninsula of Kraw is threatened, while there are rumours in the air of a great ship-canal from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean across France, and Captain Eads is confident that before long his "ship-railway" will convey vessels with their cargoes on an iron road over the Isthmus of Tehuantepec from the Atlantic to the Pacific. There are now three railroads across the American continent, and two more are being built, viz., the North Pacific and the Canadian, so that before long the world will be ransacked in its remotest corners.

Africa is, however, still the "dark continent," though even into it light is rapidly penetrating. The region around Lakes Nyassa, Victoria Nyanza, and Tanganyika, only a few years ago the El Dorado of travellers, is now the home of many mission stations, and is almost better known than was the central portion of the United States thirty years ago. From the settlement of Livingstonia on Nyassa, civilising influences are spreading to all the

neighbouring region, and a road is to be constructed between that lake and Tanganyika, on which there are already Protestant and Roman Catholic missionary settlements. From Bagamoyo to Nyanza is getting to be a beaten track, and Ujiji is no longer an unfamiliar Arab trading centre. Mr. Stanley and the French pioneers have succeeded in connecting a considerable stretch of the Congo by a chain of trading posts, although it may still be a long time before the railroad through the Sahara, which the unfortunate Col. Flatters lost his life in surveying, is begun. There is already so keen a rivalry between England and France for diverting the trade of the Upper Niger either into Sierra Leone or into Senegal, as to leave little doubt that the mysterious—if the term is allowable to a region only recently described by French, German, and Italian explorers—Timbuctoo, and the populous Nigritian kingdoms, will be brought into direct connection with eager, restless, and often annexing Europe. Elephants and African beasts of burden are again beginning to be utilised by explorers, a departure which cannot be regarded as remarkable, considering that Hannibal's "earth-shaking beasts" were of the African species; and to still further aid in the penetration of the far-away interior, M. Roudaire's scheme for the creation of an inland sea to the south of the fertile portions of Tunis and Algeria has been taken up by the French Government, who have appointed a committee to consider the whole question. This sea is to be created by letting in the waters of the Mediterranean from the Gulf of Gabes by means of a canal to be excavated across a bar of land from its shore to a chain of interior basins or desiccated salt lakes, called the Chotts of Rharsa and Melrir, which extend through Tunisian into Algerian territory. The area of inland water thus produced would be about the size of the Lake of Geneva, and as the bed of the Chotts is for the most part below the level of the Mediterranean, a canal 150 miles long, 33 feet deep, and 110 yards broad, would be the sole excavation necessary. Mr. McKenzie and M. de Lesseps, it may be remembered, have at various times talked of something similar in a more southern region. In this connection, it may be added that in a paper read before the British Association at Southampton, M. Tchihatchef, the Russian geographer, rejected the idea of the great Deserts of Sahara, Gobi, and Turkestan, being ancient sea-bottom, or that the sand which covers them has any other origin than that arising from sub-aërial influences—such as rain, and the comprehensive agencies known as "wind and weather." Mr. Joseph Thomson has been commissioned to explore the region between the east coast of Africa and the north-east end of Lake Nyassa, where he



and the late Mr. Keith Johnston formerly distinguished themselves, principally to ascertain exact particulars regarding the snow-capped mountains, Kenia and Kilimanjaro, which are affirmed, on what appear indisputable data, to rear their heads in close proximity to the Equator. Africa is still "flooded with explorers" sent out by the committee established by the influence of the King of the Belgians, but since Dr. Matteucci's and Lieut. Massari's brilliant expedition, which terminated last summer, there has been little done worthy of note, though several minor explorations have been successfully brought to a close. Mr. Schuwer is working meritoriously to make us better acquainted with the Galla country, near the head waters of the Sobat; and Dr. Stocker, whose admirable labours in the basin of Lake Tsana deserve all praise, is by this time in the region south of that point, in the direction of the Jub. Still nearer the Equator, Mr. Last, of the Church Missionary Society, has been exploring the Nguru district to the north of the station of Mamboia, inhabited by the Masai tribe, while Mr. Beardall has been tracing the Rufigi River on behalf of the Sultan of Zanzibar. Dr. Junker is endeavouring to penetrate to the very heart of the Continent, and when last heard of had passed beyond the River Welle of Schweinfurth. By many geographers this mysterious stream is believed to be a tributary of the Congo, and if so, its lower course may be reached by some of the pioneer parties who are boring into the interior from the seaward reaches of that vast flood. Finally, Mr. O'Neill is at present endeavouring to solve the problem of the origin of the Lujende. Mr. Johnston found it rising in a lake, but whether this is the old Lake Shirwa, or a new sheet of water, is still unknown.

Through Australia the railway surveyors have passed from south to north, and report well-grassed and fertile country in the regions watered by the many small tributaries of the Cloncurry, the Leichhardt, and other rivers. Mountain-climbing need not necessarily be solely an athletic exercise, though with scarcely an exception it remains so. Accordingly, it is hardly necessary to record any of those feats from which science is so markedly absent, while even in the cases where the elevations are noted, the ignorance of the observer and the rudeness of his methods render his data seldom better than useless, a trigonometrical operation being infinitely more trustworthy than any of the crude thermometer boiling, or barometer watching, which is sometimes so pretentiously foisted on the public in the guise of science. The ascent of Mount Cook, in New Zealand, by Mr. Green, is however of more importance; though whether it is worth journeying from England to the antipodes to accomplish so little,

is a matter which we are not called on to discuss. After fourteen hours' work Mr. Green and his assistant managed to cross the Tasman glacier moraine and reach the ice, but the work was so hard that one of the party, an expert at Alpine climbing, lost heart over the prospect and returned. None of them had ever seen such moraine before, and it was the opinion of the Swiss guide that there is more moraine on the Tasman glacier "than on all the Swiss glaciers put together," that the scenery is finer than that of the Alps, and that no Alpine peak they ever scaled is equal in difficulty to Mount Cook. The height of the mountain is 12,349 feet, and its sides below the snow-line were covered with plants closely resembling those of Alpine Europe. Among them was a *Graphalium* allied to *G. leontopodium*, the well-known "Edelwiss" of Switzerland.

Unless the temporarily interrupted borings for the Channel Tunnel should reveal some remarkable fact, Europe is somewhat outside the area of geographical discovery. However, we are always learning more about the old place. For instance, it has been long known that some parts of the North are sinking while others are rising. Indeed, it is believed that at one time before the land-barrier between the two seas was reared the Arctic Ocean and the Baltic were one. An observation just made on the coast of Osseby, in Finland, shows that a hole bored, according to authentic records, two inches above the sea-level on June 25th, 1755, is now six feet four inches higher, thus proving the elevation of that part of the shore has been at the rate of more than half an inch per annum. As there are not any important expeditions at present in the field, it can hardly be expected that the next few months will yield much of startling moment, unless indeed the "*semper novi ex Africa*," which in our day, as in the Roman Pro-consul's, is inexhaustible, does not agreeably disappoint our expectations.

**Biology.**—Mr. Darwin's death on the 19th of April was the most severe blow which natural science sustained during the present year. Apart altogether from the "theory" which bears his name, England lost in him her greatest naturalist, and the world a busy mind ever intent on accumulating facts and deducing unexpected generalisations from them. Otherwise, we have been progressing. Few startling discoveries have been made, or data brought to light, which alter our preconceived views of the nature of things; but zoologists, botanists, and palæontologists have, as usual, been hard at work describing new species, confirming old facts, and recording new ones. The physiologist has been as industrious as ever in

experimenting with the varied instruments which modern research puts at his disposal, and in prying into the beginnings of matter with the powerful microscopes which it is the glory of modern opticians to have constructed. The geologist has never for one moment intermitted his laborious mapping of the rock systems of the world, collating one with another, ever buoyed up by the hope that when he least expects his toil to be so richly rewarded, he will light on some vast fresh deposit like that discovered in Scotland last year, or some spot where, as in Wyoming or Oregon, whole generations of pigmy horses and other mammals of the far-away time had mixed and their skeletons been preserved for the astonishment of the then unborn race of man. Any broad generalisation, however, which could prove interesting to the general reader, has not been formulated, though, out of the vast mass of recorded observations, a few may be picked as worthy of notice in these pages.

A French *savant*—M. Regnard—has, for instance, recently described the remarkable results obtained by his experiments in feeding animals on “granulated blood.” Some lambs left without a mother’s care were brought up on beef-blood, dried and powdered so as not to excite nausea. They grew in a surprising manner, and their coat is described as being double the usual thickness, while their appearance altogether was superior to that of lambs brought up on the usual diet. A physician in Paris has also succeeded in preserving the life of a patient in the most hopeless stage of consumption, by feeding her entirely upon the uncooked juice expressed from rump-steaks by a powerful press, its effect being “little less than miraculous.” Hitherto it has been supposed that herbivorous animals required their nutriment to be slowly elaborated from the vegetable to the animal stage, but the experiments quoted above, and the observations of Hunter and others, prove that this is not the case. In Greenland, it may be added, goats are frequently fed during the winter season on dried salmon, and prosper quite as well as if they had cropped the scanty Arctic herbage. Lambs fed on their ordinary diet of beet-root, hay, &c., did not thrive so well as those nurtured on powdered blood, and the subsequent experiments with calves proved as successful as the others. It will certainly be a matter of high importance if the vast amount of nutriment now almost wasted can be thus utilised. The saving of milk in rearing calves would alone be a most valuable item. It appears that this system of alimentation is also applicable to man. In the case of a rickety child of eighteen months, the results are said to have been most encouraging.

Herr Fuchs has shown that, while the shore animals inhabiting the banks of seaweed, coral, and shells do not extend much below 30 fathoms, one finds at about 100 fathoms, over the whole earth, deep-sea animals, consisting nearly everywhere of the same types, viz., sea-urchins, lampshells, glass-sponges, feather-stars, flat-fishes, &c. About 50 fathoms generally, no matter where the observation is taken, the first of the deep-sea animals are met with; and that depth may be taken to indicate the critical zone between the two "fauna," as the particular group of animals characteristic of any region is called. In the tropics the two are separated by a very sterile region, reaching from about 30 to 80 fathoms; in temperate and cold seas they mix in abundance in the critical region. Now, it can be shown that neither the temperature, nor the chemical composition, nor the movement of the water will account satisfactorily for this vertical distribution. One factor remains to be considered, viz., light; and it is remarkable that the depth to which light penetrates in sea-water is stated to be between 43 and 50 fathoms. Herr Fuchs infers that the shore fauna are fauna of light; the deep-sea fauna, fauna of darkness. This view gains support from the fact that in some places, where the light limit is higher, the deep-sea fauna extends higher; and in fresh-water lakes, where the light penetrates to greater depths, the shore fauna reaches farther down. Again, many deep-sea animals have either uncommonly large eyes, like nocturnal animals, or are quite blind. They are mostly either pale and colourless, or entirely of one colour; and many have strong luminosity, while none such are found among shore animals. The so-called pelagic animals, which spend their life swimming in the open sea, and never need to visit the ground, have much similarity to the deep-sea fauna. The great majority are animals of the darkness, remaining in the dark depths by day, and only coming to the surface at night, and they are largely phosphorescent. The conception of the deep-sea fauna as fauna of darkness accounts simply for their presence being wholly independent of temperature, and for their being found at nearly the same depth over the whole earth. There are also interesting points of similarity between them and the fauna of grottoes and caverns. The view under consideration has important bearings on geology and palæontology. Off the Brazilian coast, in the Red Sea, and elsewhere, there are, at depths of six to eight fathoms, extensive catacomb-like formations of coral, in the dark recesses of which, on the above hypothesis, a fauna of the deep-sea character may be looked for, which, in such a position, might perplex some future geologist. Experience shows that the difference between shore

and deep-sea animal groups now found in seas can be traced, in a quite similar way, throughout past formations.

To paint the lily has usually been accounted an unsatisfactory expenditure of artistic toil. But the experiments of Mr. Nesbitt prove that this is quite practicable. He has demonstrated the powers of absorption possessed by certain flowers—notably, the narcissus, lily, and sweet pea, in regard to crimson, blue, and black aniline dyes. Following up this observation, Mr. Nesbitt found, by placing a flower in a mixture of crimson and blue colouring, and leaving it to separately absorb and distribute over different portions of its petals the two dyes, that it proved quite successful. Among others, it was demonstrated, by placing the stalks of white sweet peas in a solution of potash and chloride of aluminium, that the potash was transformed into a delicate yellow. Pink was absorbed by the narcissus most easily; red, blue, and green with greater difficulty, while six of the colours were not absorbed at all, though the flowers were left for some days in the solution.

That the little bladder-like “cell” is the ultimate foundation of the tissues of all plants and animals is of course one of the commonplaces of science. Some of the lower forms of life, such as the infusoria and the red snow plant, are made up of single cells, while the higher ones are built out of vast numbers until they attain to the dignity of tubes and vessels, and even to fibres and bones, which are simply other cells-masses hardened by the deposits within them of extraneous matter, or altered in various ways during the progress of growth. The difficulty of distinguishing between plants and animals is thus greatly increased. An oak and a lion are in no danger of being confounded. But when we come to forms of either kingdom so minute that they can be seen only by the aid of the microscope, motion, the presence of starch, green colouring-matter or chlorophyll, and, indeed, every test which at one time was considered infallible, have one by one broken down under the scrutiny of latter-day research, until, at the present moment, it is quite impossible for the biologist to supply any general definition of what constitutes an animal, and what a vegetable. Recent discoveries, however, prove that the ordinary light-green sea-anemones, so common on our shores, breathe out oxygen just as vegetables do under the influence of light; and further investigation shows that this is accomplished by vegetable cells parasitic in the body of the animal, and capable of an independent life, as is established by their separability from the anemone, and their survival for some days after its death. These green cells have indeed been transplanted from

one animal into the body of another, when they have survived and multiplied. Mr. Geddes has proposed to call these parasites, which, unlike the minute vegetable parasites that cause so many diseases (ringworm for example), serve a useful end to the animal, the name of *Philozoon*—the animals' friend. They are one-celled plants of the seaweed order, to which also belongs the thread-like green "slime," which mantles the stagnant pools in the summer, and their purpose seems to be to assist their host by supplying it with oxygen for respiration, whilst in its turn the anemone bestows on its partner, in this *symbiosis* or biological co-operation, the carbonic acid it requires. Similar observations have been made on various animals of a like zoological grade, with the result of rapidly extending the remarkable generalisation which we have mentioned.

The "beginnings of life" are indeed mysterious. No naturalist of any standing believes nowadays in "spontaneous generation," every fact proving incontestably that the Harveian doctrine of *omne vivum ex ovo*—"all life from an egg"—admits of universal application, the supposed "facts," to the contrary, being due to imperfect observations. Eleven years ago, Sir William Thomson tickled the palate of his semi-popular audience at the Edinburgh meeting of the British Association by enunciating the hypothesis that "life originated on the earth through moss-grown fragments of another world." He further stated that "we must regard it as probable in the highest degree that there are countless seed-bearing meteoric stones moving through space"—fragments of a shattered world. It ought, however, to have been added that this is a pure assumption, no evidence existing of any world ever having been shattered; far less of this hypothetical catastrophe having happened so gently as to permit its fragments to travel through the vast fields of space bearing on their surface vital seeds capable of springing into fresh life in another sphere; for the old theory which ascribed the asteroids to the disruption of a large planet has years ago been relegated to the limbo of used-up theories, owing to the extension of our knowledge of the distribution of their orbits. This doctrine was scarcely ever received seriously, though Sir William only recently reiterated his confidence in its stability. Nevertheless, for a brief space it seemed to receive confirmation from Dr. Hahn of Berlin, who published a large volume illustrated with many plates, to prove that certain meteors contain the skeletons of sponges, corals, sea-lilies, &c. But, as might have been expected, Carl Vogt, Lawrence Smith, and other more competent zoologists, have shown that the so-called fossils are in reality well-known

crystalline structures, which have been observed and described again and again by mineralogists. The *Eozoon Canadense*, which is generally accepted as the earliest known form of life on the earth, though described by Dr. Carpenter and Principal Dawson as a "foraminifer," or many-chambered shelled animal, is still stoutly affirmed by Drs. Rowney and King as not more than a crystallisation in the Laurentian rock—a charming controversy which forces us to conclude either that, as the disputants more than insinuate, the zoologist is ignorant of mineralogy, and the mineralogist of zoology, or that there is afloat a good deal of "science falsely so called."

The air is, however, full of life—minute species of fungi ready to fix on any sickly animal or vegetable organism, and give rise either to the endless parasitic moulds, rusts, smuts, &c., which play such havoc with the crops, or originate some of the most terrible maladies to which flesh is heir. Hovering over the upturned virgin soil, hanging like a pall over the swamp land and the fens, is the malaria which is simply the minute germs of vegetable life which cause so many fevers. A new source of this malaria—which in many regions of America reduces the wretched settler to the condition which, with little exaggeration, Dickens pictured in "Martin Chuzzlewit," as befalling the citizens of "Eden"—has been discovered. So many malarious attacks have been experienced of late years in San Francisco, that the health officers were led to suspect the buildings, especially as the structures themselves, which are nearly all built on wooden foundations, began to show disturbances, cracks appearing in the walls and the floors settling. Scientific investigation into the causes of these troubles points to the fact that the wood used in the foundations becomes decayed by contact with the sand, which destroys its fibre and leaves it porous and brittle, and ready to be the prey of a fungous growth. Physicians attribute many of the unpleasant smells and the bad health that hang about the inhabitants of these dwellings to this malarial condition, which to a great extent disappears as soon as proper foundations are substituted for the wooden ones.

Of late years the "germ theory" of disease has gained such ground as to be probably established. What is known as "Listerism," or the "antiseptic" treatment of wounds, is solely founded on the doctrine that the air is full of organic germs ready to settle in favourable situations, and that to protect wounds from their evil influences carbolic acid spray and cloths soaked in a solution of the same antiseptic, must be freely "exhibited" during the processes of operating and healing. The extraordinary

decrease in surgical mortality which has followed this system is the best argument in its favour. Wounds which formerly putrefied now readily close, no *nidus* favourable for the development of the floating organism being provided. The researches of Pasteur on the diseases of French vines is another specimen of the direction which the new creed has given to research. Indeed, physiologists are prone to give this germ theory a wider application than it is possible more minute investigation may warrant. Pasteur holds that the disease in silkworms is due to this cause, and Davaine that splenic fever arose thus. Klein alleged that pig typhoid was due to an organism. Toussaint attributed fowl cholera to a similar cause, and only recently Köch announced his having ascertained that tubercular diseases like consumption were to be traced to a minute bacillus or rod-like germ floating in the air, and of course capable of communicating the disease to the lungs of favourable "subjects." Vandyke Carter contends that there is a connection between the presence of *bacillus spirillum* and relapsing fever, and Talamon claims to have discovered that diphtheria is due to an organism, by means of which the virus would be conveyed from human beings to animals, and *vice versâ*. Drs. Klebs and Crudelli allege that malaria fever arises from germs present in the soil which float over the air of marshes, and that by treating with water the soil of a fever-haunted marsh of the Roman Campagna the germs of the organism can be washed out, and that the water containing the organism thus obtained, introduced into the circulation of a dog, produced ague more or less rapidly, and more or less violent, according to the numbers in which the organism was present in the water. Capt. Douglas Galton, from whose address to the Sanitary Institute on the 26th of September we quote, considers that they agree with certain well-known facts:—"In a tropical climate, if soil which has been long undisturbed, or the soil of marshy ground, be turned up, intermittent fever is almost certain to ensue. In illustration of this I recollect that at Hong Kong the troops were unhealthy, and a beautiful position on a peninsula exposed to the most favourable sea-breeze was selected for a new encampment. The troops were encamped upon this spot for some time to test its healthiness, which was found to be all that could be desired. It was then resolved to build barracks. As soon as the foundations were dug fever broke out. As an instance of this nearer home I may mention that last winter at Cannes, in the south of France, some extensive works adjacent to the town were begun, which required a large quantity of earth to be moved. The weather was exceptionally warm; an outbreak of fever occurred among the workmen, of whom fifteen died. This fever



was attributed to the turning up of the soil. If a strong solution of quinine be let fall in the water containing these organisms they at once die; the efficacy of quinine as a preventive of this form of fever would therefore not be inconsistent with this theory." At a recent meeting of the French Academy M. d'Abbadie drew the attention of the members to the remarkable immunity which the inhabitants of sulphur-mining districts enjoy from the outbreak of malarial fever. Daily fumigation of the naked body with sulphur is said to act as a preventive from this terrible pest of certain districts of Africa, Sicily, and the island of Milo in the Greek Archipelago.

So marvellously do these germs multiply, as Pasteur showed in his treatise on Chicken Cholera, that, were it not that the science of disease prevention advances quite as rapidly as our knowledge of the causes, it would hardly be possible for any of the higher forms of life to exist subject to the possibility of invasion by such complex hosts of occult enemies. The Bacterium germ—a minute organism which is infinitely more terrible than the lion or the cobra, and to the men of this generation plays the part which the Dragon of Rhodes did to those of a more heroic age—is indeed as universally diffused as the alcohol which, according to a Swiss chemist, is found in nearly every place and substance. The researches of Pasteur and Darwin have shown how earthworms may aid the diffusion of small organisms, some of which may produce disease. Schnetzler states that the dejections of earthworms always contain numerous living bacteria and their germs, the bacterium of hay fever included. It is clear that bacteria in enormous quantity float in the air about us; and we have at easy command, Schnetzler points out, a small apparatus, traversed by about 8,000 cubic centimetres of air per minute, which may inform us as to those floating germs. This is no other than the nasal cavity, on the mucous surface of which air-particles are deposited. To observe these, he advises injecting the nose with distilled water (completely sterilised) by means of a glass syringe previously calcined. The liquid so obtained is put in one perfectly clean watch glass and covered by another. With a microscope magnifying 700 or 800 times, one finds, among various particles in the liquid, some real live bacteria. If the liquid be kept a few days in a clean glass tube hermetically sealed, the bacteria are found to have increased very considerably. One sees *Bacterium termo*, *vibrio*, *spirillum*, *bacillus subtilis*, even some infusoria, and spores and fragments of fungi. Schnetzler has further successfully cultivated the organised germs by means of a mixture of gelatine and distilled water. Why do not those

bacteria in the nasal cavity always multiply and develop and penetrate to the windpipe and lungs? Their progress is doubtless opposed by the vibratory movements of the cilia, or minute hairs, in the air passages, and the weakly alkaline reaction of the nasal mucous may, it is also suggested, be unfavourable to some of them. Cohn has proved that bacteria producing acid fermentation perish in liquids with alkaline reaction. Infectious bacteria may, however, multiply to a formidable extent on living mucous surfaces, witness the growth of the *micrococcus* of diphtheria, brought by the air into the air-passages; also the *bacterium* of anthrax. The *bacillus* of tubercle, as Koch has lately shown, may be transmitted from one person to another by the air passages, and the researches of M. Giboux demonstrate the danger which healthy people run by breathing the air expired by consumptives.

The two greatest physiological discoveries of the last two years are indeed connected directly with these bacilli—viz., Pasteur's brilliant one of the decreasing virulence of disease germs when kept in the presence of oxygen, by which he is enabled to inoculate cattle and sheep with a mild form of the once terribly fatal malady variously known as charbon, Siberian fevers, milz-brand, splenic fever, or wool-sorter's disease, by which every year thousands are saved to the grazier; and Koch's discovery of the bacillus of tuberculosis. Indeed, Pasteur's discovery promises to prove in the veterinarian's hands quite as important as Jenner's did in checking the ravages of small-pox. At present, however, the subject is still in its infancy, though the probabilities are that, when we better understand the nature of bacilli, thousands of lives which are now sacrificed may be saved by being protected against these formidable enemies of the lives of man and his domestic animals.

The phylloxera, nevertheless, still continues its ravages, despite the vigilance of the men of science by whom it is surrounded. Half the vineyards of France have actually been, or are, on the point of being destroyed by the inroads of this destructive insect, the loss being estimated at £222,000,000. Innumerable syndicates, committees, societies, and individuals have studied and tried to arrest these ravages; but all has hitherto been in vain. The *Phylloxera vastatrix* appears under four different forms—the sequel, or regenerator; the fly, or coloniser; the radical (also called the apherous), or *devastator vastatrix*; and the phylloxera of the leaves, or multiplicative. Of the thousands of specifics which have for a brief period raised the drooping hopes of the vignerons, only two have been found even approximately useful. These are:—1. Submersion of the vine-roots by irrigation. 2. The introduction

into the soil of insecticides. Submersion does not suit all vines. To some it gives plenty of branches and leaves, but renders them sterile. To others it gives a pre-disposition to *coulare*, or withering of the grape when in flower. If the water used be clear, a good manuring is required after the submersion; if it be muddy, no manure is required. The entire vineyards of the Lower Charente are doomed to die in a few years, but as submersion, with few exceptions, does not suit the vines of that district, and insecticides are rendered useless by the peculiar local circumstances, the introduction of American vines, which suit the use of insecticides, are the only remedy, if vine-culture is not to become extinct.

The second remedy—viz., the introduction into the soil of sub-poison the phylloxera, proves useful in some cases. But of all the endless compounds tried, sulphuret of carbon and sulpho-carbonate of potash have been found to give the best results; the former, if injected pure into the soil; the latter, if carried to the roots by being mixed with water. The ravages of this insect, indeed, are only comparable with the ruin wrought by locusts, or by the multiplication of the rabbits, sparrows, and English weeds introduced into the Australasian colonies.

Is the skull getting thinner? Mr. Cooper endeavours to show that it is. When uncivilised man was a fighting animal, the warrior endowed with the thickest skull had the best chance of surviving in the struggle for existence. But this being no longer the case, by the law of evolution, the old standard of thickness is not maintained. Skulls are nowadays cracked by accidents which would scarcely have affected the crania of the mediæval man-at-arms, and would fall scatheless on the thick brain-pans of negroes, and of savage races accustomed to carry weights on the head. If the force of the position assumed by Mr. Cooper is accepted, the logical conclusion is that we are approaching a time when the human cranium will become much thinner; so delicate, in fact, that it will be easily fractured. We may then, he thinks, expect a revival of natural selections, and an increase of cases of death from violence to the head.

A rage for improving on nature is one of the characteristics of all barbarous races, and, indeed, of all people in a stage of civilisation, which is not to be regarded as the highest. The various deformities of the head, practised by different savages and other races are well known,\* but it is only recently that Baron Mikluho-Maklay, the Russian naturalist, who has passed so many years in the Eastern Archipelago, has confirmed what Macgillivray asserted thirty years before, viz.—that the Cape York

\* Brown: "Peoples of the World," Vol. I., p. 87.

(Australia) natives compressed the heads of their children into a conical shape, as do the natives of Koskeemo, on the north-west coast of Vancouver Island. This practice he witnessed in the islands of Torres Strait on several new-born children. On the East Coast of New Guinea numerous cases of unintentional distortion of the heads of adult females, in consequence of the practice of carrying heavy loads in large bags by a band slung around the head, were noticed. A little behind the coronal suture a permanent and saddle-shaped depression of the skull occurs, which cranial deformity, Baron Maklay thinks has a claim of being transmitted by inheritance. By the murder of Dr. Crevaux on the borders of Brazil we have, doubtless, lost much valuable information, which may never be recovered. But the only other fact of ethnological importance which we can spare space to describe, are the curious researches of Mr. Frank Cushing, of the Smithsonian Institute, among the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico. These interesting people are believed to be the direct descendants of the Aztecs, whom Cortez conquered, and their "communal houses," in which a whole tribe reside, are simply on a ruder scale than the gorgeous palaces which the *conquistadores* describe in the Valley of Mexico. Mr. Cushing has resided among the Pueblos for nearly three years, and, having acquired their confidence, is able to relate numerous particulars regarding the habits of the races inhabiting them, which have hitherto escaped the notice of ethnologists.

**General Physics.**—Under this head may be noted a few of the more generally interesting facts relating to physical science, including chemistry which have been recorded during the past year. Chemistry is, indeed, such a rapidly advancing science, that, if we include within its bounds photography, a volume would not suffice to keep abreast of every fact which the industry of its cultivators has brought to light. Happily, however, for our purpose, many of these are of little popular moment, relating merely to technical details, having no immediate bearing on the sciences generally, or to commercial processes, which do not come within the province of this section of the year's chronicles. Mr. Muybridge's instantaneous photographs have quite revolutionised our views regarding the attitudes which animals assume in walking and running, showing that the older painters, if more picturesque in their portrayal than their successors were, must be, if they consult accuracy, ludicrously far out in their guesses.\* The almost incredible

\* Mr. Muybridge's photographs have been published in a large volume, and are described in numerous other quarters. An admirably condensed

rapidity of the gelatine-bromide dry plates, now so rapidly displacing the old-fashioned wet ones, has rendered photography a widely different pursuit from what it was a few years ago. Photographs by the electric light and by moonlight are now every-day occurrences, though at one time it was doubted whether either was practicable. The photographs taken by moonlight are very peculiar. The sky is very white, the trees black, and the shadows fall two ways, so that the practice of taking such views is scarcely likely ever to emerge from the stage of scientific curiosity. Portable cameras, aided by the easily-managed dry plates, have made photography an elegant pastime, and among other useful applications of the new process is the manufacture of transparent slides for lantern projections. Again and again it has been announced that the secret of preparing instantaneous coloured photographs had been fathomed. But again and again we have been doomed to disappointment, the so-called discovery being invariably some mechanical process, not differing very widely from that which consists in applying the pigments with the pencil. No material sensitive to all colours has been found, nor is expected, though to make coloured pictures which are an improvement on those painted by hand is not among the impossibilities of science and art. "Supposing," writes the describer of this process, "the object to be photographed to exhibit two colours—say, a green-leaved plant with red flowers—two negatives are taken, one designed to represent the leaves and the other the flowers. From each negative a print is taken, and each is coloured either mechanically or by any coloured sensitive film, or, in fact, in any manner that will give a semi-transparent coloured film. The two prints are then laid over the other, and if properly 'justified,' or fitted together, give a single coloured picture of the green-leaved plant with red flowers." The prints are said to show half tints, and to give all the gradations of light and shade, with none of the hardness and density of painted photographs. The general tendency of photography as an art is to find cheaper methods of taking negatives, making prints on a large scale, and bringing the art more and more into use in education and business. The use of the salts of platinum in place of the salts of silver in making the sensitive paper used in printing from negatives is among the most valuable of these improvements. The development is by the ferros-oxalate process, and the prints have the merit of great permanence. The art of view of the practical points brought out by them is, however, given in a convenient form in p. 569 of Mr. Baden Pritchard's *Photographic News* for September 22nd, 1882.

making "composite" pictures—of which Mr. Francis Galton must be accorded the principal meed of praise—is among the more curious of recent discoveries. They are made by "taking the portraits of a number of persons, say the members of a family, or of patients suffering from the same disease, and exposing their portraits, one after another, to a sensitive plate. The result is a compound or composite picture, that is not exactly like any one individual, but resembles all. In like manner, a composite print picture, made by combining the portraits of a family of brothers and sisters has given a strong resemblance to one of the parents or grandparents." The bromo-gelatine rapid printing paper we have already casually referred to as an admirable aid to the speedy printing of positives. The numerous new baths, new cameras, and other apparatus for the convenience of the photographer need not be described, while it is almost foreign to our province to notice the various commercial applications of this art. Among these, however, the new photo-engraving process may be briefly described. Sheets of polished metal are prepared by covering them with gelatine sensitized with bichromate of potash. This is exposed, under a negative, to the sun, in a printing frame. The film is then washed with water to remove the surplus gelatine that has not been fixed or hardened by the light. An alloy of bismuth, tin and lead is then prepared, and poured, while yet liquid, into a special vessel or plate, and the metal plate with the gelatine film is laid over it and submitted to pressure. "The alloy," to quote the description from which we condense these particulars, "takes the impression from the film, and when cold it may be used as an engraved block in printing." This new alloy—known as "Spence's metal"—may also be used in other ways, and it sets or hardens before the gelatine film can melt. Another photographic copying process consists in reproducing pictures on silvered glass. "Ordinary mirrors are covered on the silvered side with a film of sensitized bitumen; the glass is then placed under a negative and exposed to the light. After the exposure the bitumen is washed with oil of turpentine, and the parts not affected by the light are washed away. This leaves the picture, in hardened bitumen, on the back of the mirror. The silvering is then washed with nitric acid, which removes all not protected by the bitumen." This may be taken as a specimen of the numerous other ingenious applications of the principles of chemistry, which are continually being utilised by photographers.\*

\* In the *Photographic News*, 1882, pp. 509, 524, &c., Captain Abney, R.E., has described the more recent advances in scientific photography, to which those of our readers interested in technical details are referred.

The determination of the astringent matter contained in wine—*e.g.* *cœnotannin*, and several colouring matters closely related to it—is a most delicate process. But the recent discovery by M. Girard, in addition to being exceedingly simple, is less uncertain than those at present in use, especially when there is little astringent matter. It depends on the tendency of the matter in question to combine with animal tissues. Accordingly, some fine white catgut violin cords are carefully prepared, the oiling process having been omitted, and four or five of these are put together. A certain quantity is soaked in water for four or five hours (one grain having previously been detached to ascertain the water in it); then these swollen portions are put in a known quantity of the wine to be analysed. This is quickly altered in consequence; in twenty-four hours generally, or forty-eight at most, all colour has disappeared. The tanned and dyed portions of cord are then dried, first in a flat dish, then in a closed vessel at higher temperature. A comparison then made of the original cord (free from water) with the same cord tanned, coloured, and dried, affords a correct estimate of the *cœnotannin* and colouring matters of the wine.

The experiments of M. Charpentier have more accurately than at any previous period determined the time which elapses between the appearance of a light before the eye and the production of a signal by the person on perceiving the light. It appears that with the same person and like conditions, the duration varies without apparent regularity to the extent of double. But a constant average may be arrived at, which in the author's case was thirteen-hundredths of a second (direct vision). With different persons, it varied from nine to fifteen hundredths. The duration is sensibly increased the same for both eyes (if sound), and is notably increased by other brain occupations—*e.g.*, speaking, or attentive listening during the experiment, and also varies according to numerous other circumstances.

M. Vidal's clever little selenium photometer or light-measurer, is worthy of notice. A very delicate galvanometer points to zero; allow subdued daylight to strike the selenium, and immediately the needle goes to 5°; while a piece of magnesium burnt in the immediate vicinity causes the point to point to 22°. A current of electricity on its way to the galvanometer is stopped by reason of a piece of selenium placed in the circuit. Selenium, under ordinary circumstances, is a non-conductor, or nearly so; but permit light to shine upon it, and it becomes a conductor; the more light at hand, the greater being its conductivity. Hence, remarks Mr. Baden Pritchard, the greater the amount of light shining upon the selenium, the more the needle of the galvanometer moves. As in

the case of Crookes' radiometer or light-mill, it is the calorific rays, and not the actinic rays, that cause the change in the selenium ; but as a certain relation is doubtless to be established between these two kinds of rays, the photographer is likely to benefit by M. Vidal's instrument. Its delicacy is such, that light insufficient to set the radiometer in motion marks  $3^{\circ}$  on the Vidal photometer. Sunshine marks  $60^{\circ}$  on the galvanometer.

The radiometer is for the present little more than a scientific toy, or, at best, a means of making experiments in physics. But it has lately been proposed to utilise it as a photometer, in testing the power of different lights let fall on its vanes through holes in the opposite sides of a metallic box in which it is placed. Of course if the two lights are equally powerful, the "light mill" will stand still, the vanes remaining motionless, with one fan towards one light and the other towards the other. If the power of the lights is unequal, the stronger light will displace the vanes, or cause them to revolve. If it is desired to measure the intensity of the light to be tested, it must be removed further away or nearer to the bulb till the balance is set up. The distance of the light from the bulb will then give the value of the light, as in any of the photometers now in use.

Some experiments carried on by Professor Langley on the summit of Mount Whitney prove that the amount of heat sent to the earth by the sun is one-half greater than that determined by Ponillet and Herschel near the sea-level, but that the temperature of space is lower than hitherto believed. Were the atmosphere of the earth withdrawn, the temperature of the earth would fall to such an extent that mercury would remain solid under the vertical rays of a tropical sun, if radiation into space were wholly unchecked, or even if, the atmosphere existing, it let radiation pass out as it came in. It is not merely by the absorption of the air, but by the selective quality of the absorption, that the actual surface temperature of the earth is maintained. Without this comparatively little-known function, it is doubtful whether, even though the air supported respiration and combustion as now, life could be maintained on this planet. The temperature of a planet consequently depends most probably far less on its neighbourhood to or remoteness from the sun than upon the constitution of its gaseous envelope ; and it might be hazarded that we could approximately indicate the constitution of an atmosphere which would make Mercury a colder planet than the Earth, or Neptune as warm and habitable as one.

Boracic acid has long been known as a potent material for



preserving substances from decay, a little placed in milk keeping it sound for several days, though its steady use is apt to prove deleterious. Professor Barff, however, by the discovery of boroglycerids, formed by the union of boracic acid and glycerine in certain different proportions, has given us an antiseptic which puts organic substances used for food practically beyond the power of decay. Some fresh butter a year old was as good as the day when it came in contact with this powerful preservative. The result of three years' observation of the transparency of the air in Upsala, Sweden, has been published by Herr Hamburg. Extreme transparency occurred most frequently in March and April, very frequently also in October, but was very rare in June and December. The transparency was proved to be related to air pressure and direction of wind, and as might be expected, moisture, to transparence decreasing as the moisture increased; though, on an average, the air was more transparent on cloudless than on cloudy days. There were great irregularities, and a direct connection between transparence and the quality of clouds could not be affirmed. On the whole, the cause of differences in the transparence of the air seems to be a partial condensation of watery vapours, while during the warmer months, smoke and dust from regions near or distant operate in obscuring the clearness of the atmosphere. The more troubled the air, the greater is the probability of rain, and the greater the quantity of it. However, in the months of February, March, September, and October, the probability of rain with transparent air is very small, in comparison with that with troubled air; but in the months April to August, the difference is not nearly so great, evidently because of the dry troubling of the air which then occurs.

If we look through a spectroscope directed to any portion of the sky, we see a tinted ribbon covered with thin black lines. One of these situated in the orange is technically known as the D line. If the instrument is directed to a pure blue sky, the line is then very faint, but in certain conditions of the atmosphere the red side of the line has a dark shadow, as if it had been shaded down with a bit of rough black chalk: this shading is the "rain-band," which Professor Piazzzi Smyth has recently asserted, is a measure of the nearness or quality of rain, according to its relative darkness. However, other observers, notably the Duke of Argyll, affirm that, after much watching, they found the "rain-band" not to be relied upon, although the latter admits that the Scottish Astronomer Royal "has certainly made a good shot" in his prognostications about the weather. Accordingly, after the fond hopes so needlessly raised having been thrown to the ground,

the weather prophet must once more wander forth into the wilderness in search of some surer prognostication than the fallacious "rain-band," indeed, unless we are to accept Mr. Corry's belief that during wet weather the absence of the band denotes finer weather to follow. In whatever direction a strong rain-band is shown, in that direction the observer mentioned is confident rain is falling or about to fall. Only the spectroscope must not be used alone for weather forecasts, but as an adjunct to others.

A method of obtaining oxygen from air for technical purposes has recently been devised by M. Margis. The principle is that of dialysis, or diffusion under pressure. Atmospheric air being forced against a first caoutchouc membrane by suction, a mixture of about 40 per cent. oxygen and 60 per cent. nitrogen is obtained on the other side; a second membrane increases the proportion of oxygen to 60 per cent., that of the nitrogen being reduced to 40; a third gives 80 per cent. oxygen; a fourth, 95 per cent. Even the mixture got from the first dialysis is strong enough to considerably increase the luminous power of a gas holding hydrocarbons as much as tenfold.

Sir William Thomson considers that the attraction of the sun and the moon has no very appreciable influence on the earth, yet Mr. George Darwin, in his paper on the earth's rigidity, read at the recent meeting of the British Association, and in his report on the lunar disturbances of gravity, proved that absolute steadiness is really not attainable on the earth, which seems in a constant condition of tremor. It may be added, in this connection, that though Sir William still credits his meteoric theory of the peopling of the earth with the merit of being a sound doctrine, and Baron Nordenskjöld affirms that a large portion of the earth's crust is composed of the fine meteoric dust which is always falling, the learned Glasgow Professor treated as an elaborate joke the account of gigantic hailstones of meteoric origin which Dr. Schwedoff related to the same meeting.

Professor Le Conte of California has confirmed and extended Colladon's observations, to the effect that when the end of the "hearing tube" is plunged into water, and screened by a projecting ball, sounds sent through water are remarkably lessened in intensity. These "sound shadows" are known to be more distinct in water than in air.

The effect of oil thrown on the surface of the sea in calming the waves has been known from a very early period. But only recently the subject has been again revived, and the attention of Parliament called to it by Lord Aberdeen. It has been found that the influence of even a few gallons of oil in calming the most

turbulent harbour "bar" is so remarkable that arrangements are being made for placing pipes under several of these obstacles to navigation, by which oil can at pleasure be pumped from reservoirs ashore, when the state of the sea or the convenience of navigation renders this advisable.

Balloons as means of reconnoitering an enemy have again been discussed, though strangely enough their use during the late Egyptian campaign was ignored at a period when they would have been of inestimable value in ascertaining the movements of Arabi during or immediately after the bombardment of the Alexandria forts, and the condition of the force which was subsequently routed by Sir Garnet Wolseley. However, we are just as near as ever to making any other practical use of these aerial vessels, the impossibility of directing them, or overcoming lighter currents, reducing their value as aids to locomotion. Father Pauze and Monsignor Capel have indeed devised one more flying machine, which consists of a car or boat fitted with light fans or propellers, to be driven by steam, gas, electric, compressed air, or other engines, and steered in the vertical plane by a sort of horizontal sail. When the propellers are in motion, and the car advancing, the presence of air coming upon this sail will, it is claimed, cause the car to rise or descend, or go horizontally, according to the angle presented to it by the sail.

One more important fact in the physical discoveries of the past twelve months may be noted. This is, that experiments made in the Medway went so far to prove that the destruction of H.M. gunboat *Doterel* was caused by the explosion of coal gas and xerotine siccative used in mixing paint. Some xerotine siccative and a tank of coal gas being placed in the hold and fired, a tremendous explosion followed; the decks were blown completely out, and the ship set on fire throughout in an instant.

**Electricity.**—In popular estimation, which, in this case has taken a correct view, electricity has of late overshadowed every other department of physical science. Its useful applications are so endless, its possibilities evidently so boundless, that we are apt to forget that, speaking in general terms, these are necessarily modifications and variations of one or two leading and long-known principles, so that, in reality, the recent astounding advances of practical electricity are not quite so remarkable when studied from their scientific side. Naturally, the question of gas *versus* electricity claims the first place. During the present year electric light companies out of number have been advertising their merits, and attracting the attention

of those who feel more interest in buying and selling their shares than in examining their actual merits. Many private houses and buildings have been fitted with the new and brilliant light, and one or two towns have made some steps towards its adoption ; but as yet nothing very decisive has been done to replace gas as a lighting agent. The cost of the old light is known, the cost of the new one is still an uncertain factor in the calculations of individuals and municipalities, and is therefore approached cautiously, though its merits, leaving out the risk of accident and of breakdown, are universally acknowledged even by those whose interest lies in the maintenance of the old condition of affairs. Numerous "systems" are on trial. In London most of them can be witnessed. Holborn and the Viaduct are lit by the Edison incandescent lamps, the electricity to feed the 2,360 lights of sixteen-candle power being generated by two gigantic dynamo machines. The smaller dynamo machine, which was the first set up, weighs, according to an official account supplied by the company, twenty-two tons, and supplies 1,000 lamps. The armature, the shaft of which is connected directly with the driving-wheel of the engine, makes 350 revolutions per minute. The field-magnets are twelve in number, and the whole machine and engine rest on a hollow iron casting as a base. The other dynamo, which drives 1,360 lamps, is proportionately larger. From the central generating station, which is the electrical counterpart to our gas-works, insulated wires are laid in mains in subways in the street. From these mains, sub-mains or branch wires, insulated and enclosed in small tubes, enter the buildings where electricity is laid on. All these wires are fitted with the fusible plug, which prevents any risk of fire by any accidental excess of electricity passing along the wires. If such an accident should happen, the fusible plug melts as soon as the temperature rises to the point of danger. The risk, however, even without the plug, is very slight, and there is absolutely no danger of such accidents as those which are of frequent occurrence where the arc lights are used. To touch the naked wires along which is pulsating the lightning employed in the Brush and other arc systems of lighting is certain and instant death, as an accident which happened to one of the repairers in New York as late as October 3rd proves. But any one can grasp the wires along which Mr. Edison conveys the electrical energy required to light up the incandescent lamps. A slight tingling in the finger-joints is all that is felt, and this is so faint as almost to be imperceptible. The difference is in the pressure. Edison uses a low-pressure current ; the others use a current at high pressure. The former is safer, the latter is

cheaper. A high-pressure current is indispensable for the "arc system." It is by no means impossible that considerations of economy may necessitate its adoption for incandescent lamps. Mr. Swan, who uses a high-pressure current, claims to produce twice as much candle-power as Mr. Edison, who uses a low-pressure current; and the latter has still to prove that his system is as economical as it is undeniably brilliant. The incandescent lamp does not yield one-tenth of the candle-power per lb. of coal that is got out of the arc light, and if it should prove that the Edison system is comparatively twice as dear as that of Mr. Swan, its strength, simplicity, and regularity will hardly suffice to enable it to keep or command the market. In the City, the Anglo-American Brush Electric Light Company has obtained a renewal of the contract for the district stretching from Cheapside to Blackfriars Bridge at an increased charge of about 20 per cent. Last year they received £660 for lighting 1,648 yards of street; this year they will receive £800, or about 10s. a yard. This is about the same as was paid for gas. As the new contracts for the Lontin and Siemens districts amounted to twice and five times the price paid for gas, their renewal remains in abeyance. In Paris, the Jablochkoff light has received another three years' lease of the Avenue de l'Opéra, the Parisians, after a brief trial, not being able to tolerate gas after being accustomed to the more brilliant but more costly illuminant. It will probably be the same in the City, although in Edinburgh, where the light was tried, it was discarded on the score of expense, as also was the Jablochkoff light in London, which cost seven times as much as gas when it was tried on Holborn Viaduct. An experiment is being made by the Electric Light and Power Generator Company to light Pentonville Road, while the holders of the Laing light have introduced it into Regent Street. The Clerkenwell vestry has entered into a year's contract with the Maxim-Weston Company for lighting Pentonville Road on a new system. Two fifty-candle incandescent Maxim lamps are to be placed in each of the thirty-one existing gas lamps, and they will be run, according to a statement in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, at three-farthings per double lamp per hour. This amounts to an annual sum of £476 17s. 6d. The Maxim lamp is so like the Edison in external appearance, that one might easily be mistaken for the other, but for a slight difference in the shape of the carbon. A sixteen horse-power steam-engine is erected in the square between the Crimean monument and the Duke of York's column, and from this electricity is obtained sufficient to light the twelve central lamps which have been set up in Waterloo Place, Regent Street, and Piccadilly Circus, though experience has

still to justify the sanguine expectations of the promoters. As regards other towns, many have advanced the preliminary step which the recent Act gives them the power to take as regards supplying themselves with the electric light. But the majority, in the present uncertain condition of matters, prefer not to meddle with what they do not understand, and leave to speculators the loss or profit which these experiments may entail.

Almost every day brings forth a new company, which loudly proclaims its "system" to be superior to anybody else's. But there is no possibility as yet of saying whose plan it is best to adopt, for the "system" which just now looks most advisable to try may be obsolete before a few years elapse. Mr. Mossop, who has given much attention to the subject, points out that there are some streets, like the Place de l'Opéra in Paris, where no difference of opinion could arise as to the advisability of having the electric light, let it cost what it may. On the other hand, there are those very small streets which few would think it expedient to illuminate by electricity. The expense will, however, for long remain the obstacle to the use of electricity, whatever those commercially interested in the question may assert. There is practical unanimity that the square mile is the best space to work to advantage. Yet the authority whose views we have just quoted, shows that, while Dr. Siemens estimates the cost at £100,000, and the annual expenses, interest, and sinking fund, at £22,000, Dr. Hopkinson calculates £200,000 per mile, and, speaking generally, the annual expenditure at something like the price of gas. Mr. Edison's agent, on the other hand, puts it at £100,000, with the annual cost the same as gas; and Mr. Crompton at £200,000, saying nothing about annual expenditure. "There is sufficient discrepancy here to make a man of business pause. To bring the matter home to us, let us take the parish of Chelsea. It is more than one, and less than two miles long, and fairly broad, and has an outlying station (Kensal town) under the mile. So that for Chelsea we should want three stations. But Dr. Siemens says he calculates the mile would cover 12,000 inhabitants and 1,500 houses. Now, Chelsea has 88,000 inhabitants, and 10,708 houses, and if Dr. Siemens is correct, then instead of three stations we should want seven, or £700,000 instead of £300,000. It would not, of course, work out like this, but the discrepancy is startling. If we take Dr. Siemens' evidence at its lowest, £100,000 per mile, and annual expenditure of £22,000 per mile, we shall have a first debt of £300,000, and an annual expenditure of £66,000, more than the vestry expends now of its own accord. Our expenditure for lighting, including new lights and repairs,

was last year £4,317 for thirty-one miles of streets. Speaking from a practical point of view, there is no evidence except that based on theories as to the cost of working. The Albert Docks cost £12,600 annual expenditure, including £10 per cent. for sinking fund and interest, £43,001, equal to one-third of the outlay."

It is, therefore, clear that though it may be easy to prove that electricity is cheaper than gas, apart from the incidental saving which arises from the absence of the oftentimes noxious products of combustion, it is not quite so certain that it will be profitable to the municipality which rashly ventures on the adoption of any particular "system," before the test of time is applied to it. Electricity is like every other form of force, only obtainable by the employment of a corresponding amount in some other form. The process is not one of generation, but simply of transmutation. The question, therefore, must always be, whether most light can be obtained by converting a pound of coal into gas, and burning it as an illuminant, or using it in a gas-engine to turn an electric machine, or by burning the coal to convert water into steam, which again is to be used as a motor. Accordingly, when the word "self-generating" is applied to a system, electricians are apt to conclude that the promoter of the company, which is to work it, does not know quite enough of electrical science to be trusted with such important functions. However, we must remember that if in the present mania for starting electric light companies, which is only paralleled by the old railway fever, statements are put forward which will not bear the test of truth, it is barely four years since M. Jablochhoff announced his discovery of a means of dividing an electric current, furnished by a single generator, and of distributing it amongst a number of lamps. This discovery first brought the use of electric light for small buildings within the limits of possibility. At that time the so-called "electric candles," formed of two parallel strips of carbon, separated by a column of China clay, was the form in use. The sole mode of electric lighting was by means of the arc or luminous band, which passes between the two points of carbon, across an intervening space. Yet since that day such immense advances have been made that we have reason for sanguine hope as regards the future, though for the present the rank crop of companies must be regarded as mainly the outcome of the "promoters'" ingenuity, and the contents of their prospectuses highly coloured statements which it would be rash to regard as unqualified facts, and might be prudent to treat as tinctured with fiction.

But even were gas to be replaced by electricity as an illumi-

nant, there need be no apprehension that gas would not find as profitable an outlet as ever for its employment. Leaving out of account the admitted inadequacy of the present quality supplied, the quasi-monopoly of the companies tending to discourage the use of improved burners or the supply of the illuminant of a better description than the Act compels, it is likely, in future, to be extensively employed as a heating agent both in houses and in factories. It is cheaper, and certainly preferable, from a sanitary point of view, that coal, instead of being burnt in grates and dissipating the "products of combustion" into the atmosphere, to the injury of those who must breathe them, should be consumed in the form of gas. Dr. Siemens looks forward to the time when towns will be supplied from gas-works placed at the colliery mouth—or, still better, at the bottom of the pit—whereby all haulage of fuel would be avoided, and the gas, in its ascent from the bottom of the colliery, would acquire an outward pressure sufficient, probably, to impel it to its destination. The possibility of transporting combustible gas through pipes for such a distance—say thirty miles—has been proved at Pittsburg, where natural gas for the oil district is used in large quantities. Fear has, however, been expressed that if such inflammatory work as gas making is carried on in coal-pits, accidents with fire-damp may be alarmingly frequent. Over thirty millions sterling are invested in the gas-works of England. In them 4,281,048 tons of coal are annually converted, producing 43,000 million cubic feet of gas, and 2,800,000 tons of coke; whereas, the total amount of coal annually converted in the United Kingdom may be estimated at 9,000,000 tons, and the by-products therefrom as 500,000 tons of tar, 1,000,000 tons of ammonia liquor, and 4,000,000 of coke, to which may be added, say 120,000 of sulphur, which, up to the present time, is a waste product. The discovery of aniline dyes has made a profitable market for all the coal-tar—a substance which was at one time the despair of the gas-works now yielding colouring matter worth £3,350,000. The ammonia is valued at £1,947,000, or, taking the coal used in the product of gas at 12s. a ton, the 9,000,000 tons converted would be worth £5,400,000, which, if Dr. Siemens' figures are accurate, the by-products—colouring matter, sulphate of ammonia, pitch, creosote (25,000,000 gallons), Condry's carbolic acid (1,000,000 gallons), and coke—at £8,370,000 would exceed in value the coal used by very nearly £3,000,000. In using raw coal for heating purposes these valuable products are not only lost to us, but they hang like a pall in the atmosphere—poisoning the air, producing black fogs, and, as statistics prove, injuring the public health to a serious extent. Mr. Roberts has calculated that



the soot hanging in a cloud over London on a winter day is equal to fifty tons, and that the carbonic oxide, a poisonous compound resulting from the imperfect combustion of coal, may be taken as at least five times this amount.\* At the Gartsherrie works the gases that were wasted in the production of iron have now been made to do double duty. Not only have they been utilised, as is common, by being put to the heating of boilers and other kindred work, but since this discovery have been made to yield the tar, ammonia, &c., which they contain. It is said that this is effected without disturbing the smelting process, and without materially lessening the value of the gases for the purposes to which they have been put. A similar process is now in successful use in the coke trade of South Durham, where it has been introduced from France, for the commercial production of ammonia &c., from the waste gases given out in the process of the manufacture of coke; and now that the German process for the recovery of sulphur has been adopted into this country, a third great industry thus profits by the recovery of what has so long been a waste product.

The practical application of electricity still continues to progress. Electric transmission of power is already being employed to affect the various operations of the farm and field from one centre. In the Werners-Siemens electric railway in Berlin the electric energy is transmitted to the moving carriage or train of carriages through the two rails upon which it moves, these being sufficiently insulated from each other by being placed upon well-creosoted cross sleepers. At the Paris electrical exhibition the current was conveyed through two separate conductors, making sliding or rolling contact with the carriage; whereas in the electrical railway now in the course of construction in the north of Ireland, a separate conductor will be provided by the side of the line (twelve miles long), and the return circuit completed through the rails themselves. Secondary batteries will be used to store the surplus energy created in running down hill, to be restored in ascending steep inclines, and for passing roadways where the separate insulated conductor is not practicable. The improved secondary batteries of Planté, Faure, Volckmar, Sellon, and others, promise to accomplish for electricity what the gas-holder has done for the supply of gas, and the accumulator for hydraulic transmission of power. This storage of electricity—though, of course, not what it is popularly believed to be, the Faure secondary battery

\* In Dr. Siemens' address to the British Association at Southampton (1882) these and kindred questions were discussed more fully than it is possible to do here.

being really in general terms a battery in a box—will enable householders to receive every day a supply of the electric fluid, and obviates the objection frequently raised against the electric light that it depends on the continuous motion of a steam or gas engine, which is liable to accidental stoppage.

The electric light has been proved by Dr. Siemens to hasten vegetation, and may be used even for heating purposes. Electric gigs and bicycles have been seen within the last year, and only a few weeks ago a launch propelled by electricity stored in accumulators of the Sellon-Volekmar type ran down the Thames against the tide at the rate of eight knots an hour. However, though the boat in question was the first ever constructed in this country, forty-three years ago M. Jacobi propelled a skiff on the Neva by aid of a large but primitive electro-magnetic engine, worked by galvanic batteries of the old type, wherein zinc plates were dissolved in acid; and only two years ago a little model was shown in Paris by M. Trouvé, actuated, we learn from Dr. Silvanus Thompson, by accumulators of the Faure-Planté type. Finally, if it is mentioned that the dynamo current has been practically applied to the refining of copper and other metals, we shall not have exhausted its ever-extending applications. The attraction which the brilliant electric light has for insects has been utilised for their destruction, a grated trap round the crystal globe set up near a field being filled in the morning by the insectal suicides. The numerous forms of competing telephones which have been introduced during the past year have not only given ample employment to the law courts, but have greatly extended the use of the instrument, until, as Mr. Preece showed in his interesting paper, read before the British Association at Southampton, its employment, though not so general in this country as in America, is now rapidly becoming an indispensable adjunct to large firms and even to private individuals with widely scattered interests. No less than £1,550,000 capital is embarked in its extension in England, and it is earning a revenue of £109,000. Conversation has been held in America over 410 miles; in Persia it has been effected between Tabreez and Tiflis, 390 miles apart; in India, over a distance of nearly 500 miles; in Australia, of 300 miles. But in all these instances it was done either at night or under exceptional circumstances, and in every instance the wires were underground. Had they been overground or submarine, the case would, according to Mr. Preece, have been very different. Conversation has been held between Dover and Calais, between Dartmouth and Guernsey, and between Holyhead and Dublin; but there is no case where any persons have spoken through more

than a hundred miles of submerged cable. The reason of this diminution of speaking distance is due to the absorption by the telegraph line of the minute quantity of electricity that makes up the currents employed for telephonic purposes. Moreover, when two or more telephone wires run side by side, what is said on one can be overheard on all the others; and when a telephone wire extends alongside telegraph wires, every current on the telegraph circuit is repeated in the telephone, leading to "a hissing, frying, bubbling sound" that is not only irritating, but which on busy lines entirely drowns speech. Many plans have been devised with a view to cure the evil, but the only effective mode of doing so is to employ a complete metallic circuit, so constructed that "the two wires are in very close proximity to each other, or that they twist round each other, so as to maintain a mean average equality of distance between themselves and the disturbing wires." The double-wire system is, however, absolutely effective only so long as the insulation is good. The moment this fails, connection with the earth is made, and then we have a disturbing cause, due to currents flowing through the ground, which are increased in proportion to the deterioration of the insulation. The discovery of the telephone, Mr. Preece points out in the lecture from which these particulars are condensed, has made us acquainted with another phenomenon. It has enabled us to establish beyond doubt the fact that currents of electricity actually traverse the earth's crust. There are several cases on record of telephone circuits miles away from any telegraph wires, but in a line with the earth terminals, picking up telegraphic signals. When an electric light system uses the earth, it is a stoppage to all telephonic communication in its neighbourhood. The whole telephonic communication of Manchester was one day broken down from this cause, and in the City of London the effect was at one time so strong as not only to destroy telephonic communication, but to ring the bells. A telephone circuit using the earth for return acts as a shunt to the earth, picking up the currents that are passing, in proportion to their relative resistances. A telephone circuit when in connection with the earth gives distinct evidence of every visible flash of lightning, however far off the thunderstorm may be. No difference in time has been observed between seeing the flash and hearing the crash. It is said that, if a telephone be connected between the gas and water systems of a house, distinct evidence of every flash can be heard. There have been several cases of persons being knocked down while experimenting during a thunderstorm, but no personal injury has been sustained, although the apparatus itself is frequently

damaged. In England, at present, we have not found the damage done sufficient to justify the employment of lightning protectors. The use of double wires diminishes the danger to a minimum. On the Continent and in America, where single wires are used, however, telephones are invariably protected by lightning arresters. Mr. Preece had recently tried an extremely interesting experiment between Southampton and the Isle of Wight—namely, to communicate across seas and channels without the aid of wires at all. Large metal plates were immersed in the sea at opposite ends of the Solent—namely, at Portsmouth and Ryde, six miles apart, and at Hurst Castle and Sconce Point, one mile apart. The Portsmouth and Hurst Castle plates were connected by a wire passing through Southampton, and the Ryde and Sconce Point plates by a wire passing through Newport; the circuit was completed by the sea, and signals were passed easily so as to read by the Morse system, but speech was not practicable. The increasing accidents to buildings and life from contact with electric wires are likely to be obviated either by using low pressure or by covering them with asbestos.

The application of the microphone to the detection of fire-damp is advocated on the principle that such explosions are always preceded by undulations, too feeble to be detected by the human ear, but that these latter could be revealed by a system of microphones placed at intervals throughout the mine.

Evaporation has been very commonly believed to be an important source of atmospheric electricity. But the recent experiments of Messrs. Freeman and Blake do not support this doctrine—it being proved that evaporation, at most, is a very insignificant portion of electricity, for in reality their experiments do not trace any whatever to this supposed fountain-head.

Electricity has been utilised for working a railway used to collect the cloth from a bleach-field; for determining the position of bullets in the flesh; and another modification of the induction balance has been successfully used in determining the whereabouts of lost torpedoes in the sea; while an electric steering apparatus is only a natural outcome of the same ingenuity which has been devoted to finding practical uses for the mysterious "Vril," which promises to work among the men of the upper world results as wonderful as those which Lord Lytton pictured it accomplishing among "the coming race" in the subterranean regions.

Dr. Siemens hints that in time we may import our force from America just as at present we import our wheat and tinned peaches, if the transmission of power by the electric cable is not too

much enfeebled by the distance. Then the Niagara will cease to idly tumble over a cliff, and a waterfall will become a profitable property. The tides, as Sir William Thomson suggested, may be pressed into the service of the electrician as a producer of the electric fluid; and Dr. Silvanus Thompson has shown that within the limits of Bristol there are 20 billion foot-pounds of energy running to waste every year, a minute fraction of which would suffice to light the city, and could be brought within reach by the erection of a few yards of embankment.

**Astronomy.**—We have reserved a comparatively short space for the record of astronomical progress, but there is not a great deal to be said on the subject. In the past, as in former years, a thousand telescopes have been ever sweeping the sky; in a hundred observatories keen eyes are on the watch day and night for some planet which has never before wandered across the wires of the transit instrument, or are testing with lenses of higher power and greater definition the constitution of some nebulous mass. In like manner, the physicist is eager with his prism, in the hope of determining the composition of the light which beams upon us, or seizing the rare opportunities of discovering the nature of the atmosphere which surrounds these distant bodies. Such a chance occurred on the morning of the 17th of May, when there was a total eclipse of the sun, only partially visible here, but seen in perfection in equatorial and North-Eastern Africa, Egypt, Arabia, and the middle of Asia and China. The occurrence took place at twenty-three minutes past seven in the morning, and the total time allowed for observation amounted to seventy-two seconds. However, by making every preparation in advance, the phenomenon was scanned most successfully at the station in Upper Egypt selected for the purpose by the three expeditions which fixed their quarters there. To obtain an idea of the physics of the solar atmosphere—what it looks like—to study its “circulating system” (to which such special attention has been directed by Dr. Siemens’ recent theory of its being a kind of reverberatory furnace on a large scale), to investigate its extent, and to determine the luminosity of its various regions, were the principal objects of these expeditions. “Different temperature levels have been discovered in the solar atmosphere; the constitution of the corona has now the possibility of being determined, and it is proved to shine with its own light. A suspicion has been aroused once more as to the existence of a lunar atmosphere, and the position of an important line has been discovered. Hydrocarbons do not exist close to the sun, but may in the space between us and it.” In

a few words this sums up the results of the expedition ; though some time must elapse before the observations can be fully worked out, and any exact deduction made. Dr. Siemens believes that these data favour his theory, which is, however, not the opinion of many besides himself, and Mr. Lockyer is equally confident that his observations in Egypt confirm the hypothesis of the compound character of chlorine, and most of the other so-called "elements" which he espoused, and maintains single-handed against the tireless onslaughts of infuriated chemists. Captain Abney has been spectroscoping on the top of the Riffel, and Professor Langley, as we have already mentioned, on the summit of Mount Whitney. But their results, equally with those over which the physicists engaged in the Eclipse Expedition are warring, need not be discussed here, since they are too technical and special to have much popular interest. There will be between this time and 1900 ten other eclipses, the first of which will be next year, though its course is almost entirely over the Pacific Ocean. Another, in 1885, is accessible only in New Zealand. That of 1886, which falls over the Atlantic, will last in Grenada for three and a quarter minutes, and on the African coast, south of Angola, for five and a half minutes. Possibly, in future years, we may have an opportunity of chronicling them and the others which follow them at irregular intervals. On the 6th of December, 1882, will be the great transit of Venus, for observing which extensive preparations are being made by every civilised nation, but it does not fall within our province to take note of these expeditions in this issue of the twelve months' chronicles.

On March 18th a new comet was seen simultaneously in Europe and America, and on September 17th (in this country) another, which is believed to be identical with that of 1668, 1843, and 1881, returned before its expected time, and may be expected to return again still more quickly, and soon to be absorbed into the sun, with effects, Professor Piazzi Smyth considers, possibly serious to the inhabitants of the earth.

To utilise the sun as a condensing apparatus has again been discussed. M. Mouchet was, however, the first to succeed in devising a means of doing so with success, and now M. Pifré has made such important improvements in the machine that the French government have seriously thought of using it in Algeria. The apparatus consists of a concave mirror, with blackened boiler in the axis, surrounded by a glass envelope. The steam from the boiling water is condensed in a coiled tube cooled by water. The weight of water distilled in an hour indicates the amount of heat utilised ; and observations from hour to hour show the

amount of incident heat. The rate of these two quantities is a measure of the economic efficiency of the apparatus. The temperature and moisture of the air, &c., were, in the experiments made by the Government, also carefully noted. The number of days of observation was 177, and of observations 930, and water was distilled to the amount of 2,725 litres. Without entering much into numerical detail, we may state that, while the heat utilised in the most favourable circumstances per square metre per hour would be about equal to that utilised from 240 grammes of coal (supposing about a half to be utilised), even the half of this is not attainable in our climate. The sun does not shine continuously enough for practical utilisation of the apparatus. In very dry and hot climates the possibility of utilisation would depend on various circumstances, such as the degree of difficulty of procuring fuel, the price and facility of transport of solar apparatus, &c. The efficiency of the apparatus is said not to be proportional to the heat intensity of the solar radiations, and hardly ever varies in the same sense. The absolute quantity of heat utilised, on the other hand, depends essentially on the temperature of the air; the higher this is, and the less consequently the cooling, the greater the amount of heat utilised.

At a popular fête in the Tuileries Gardens on the 8th of August it was shown that with a course of uninterrupted sunshine the boiler could be heated in 30 or 40 minutes. A portable apparatus could boil two and a half quarts of water an hour, or could distil, in a day, from brackish water enough fresh drink for six or eight men. In the Atacama Desert in Peru, where no drinkable water exists, a supply for towns and mining camps is obtained by means of low glass frames, very similar to those under which cucumbers are grown; fitted with suitable pipes for leading the impure water into the frames, and others to convey away to the fresh-water receiver the condensation that collects under and rolls down the inclined glass. Rainless districts are necessarily cloudless. In the latitude of  $22^{\circ}$  the sun is sufficiently powerful to condense by its unconcentrated rays one gallon of water per day for every square yard of glass exposed; this, of course, can be multiplied to any extent. With a sheet of glass and an ordinary packing-case cut down, Sir George Nares, R.N., tells us that he obtained in the Bahamas a quart of the purest water daily by condensing salt water. The Autofogasta solar distilling apparatus, devised by Mr. Charles Wilson, produced 6,000 gallons of good water daily, from a highly-saturated solution of nitrous fluid.

The recently observed cloud buds in Mars may be noted, and

the very remarkable display of Aurora Borealis, more especially in North America, are also worthy of remark. Dr. Warren de la Rue produced at the Royal Institution, in a very large vacuum-tube, an imitation of the Aurora, and he deduced from his experiments that the greatest brilliancy of this phenomenon must be displayed at an altitude of from thirty-seven to thirty-eight miles—a conclusion which is in direct opposition to the estimate of 281 miles at which it had been previously put.

It is as hard to keep sun spots out of certain scientific writings as it was for Mr. Dick to omit a reference to Charles I. from his memorial. Accordingly we are not surprised to find Prof. Balfour Stewart having something to say about them at the last meeting of the British Association. He fancies that there is a connection between the number of spots on the sun and the height of rivers. Among other rivers, he refers to the Nile, and concludes that it probably reaches its maximum at the period of the maximum number of sun spots, and as this may be accounted a maximum year, the conclusion is obvious, though hitherto the great river of Egypt has failed to support the theory. However, this is safely hedged by the explanation that in maximum years the Nile is longer than usual in reaching its full height. If so, we may be able to arrive at some accuracy in forecasting weather, since Dr. Stewart will also insist that by watching the waves of terrestrial magnetism we should be able to predict meteorological changes fully a fortnight ahead.

Such is the "brief chronicle and abstract" which the space at our disposal enables us to indite. The difficulty has been not what to insert or what to omit, but to discriminate between subjects interesting mainly to men of science and those which are of moment for the general reader. The mass of data is so huge, the industry of the workers so untiring, that the names of the memoirs consulted would more than fill the pages which have been allotted to the present narrative. However, keeping in view the rule which we selected as our guide, it will be found that most probably few facts of paramount importance have been crowded out by the physical law of two bodies being unable to occupy the same space at the same time,



## LITERATURE AND ART.

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**Literature.**—The literary history of the twelve months which began at the end of September, 1881, is not marked by any very striking phenomena, though sufficient activity has been manifested in all the various branches of literary production. Of "epoch-making books"—to use a favourite phrase of the day—we have not to chronicle the appearance of many, although more than one work has seen the light which has obtained and deserved the attention of the reading public. Of philosophy there have been few works of a high class; and the same is true of Poetry. History and Biography have been strongly represented, and several very excellent books in these departments of literature have been produced. Of the novels which we shall have to notice, the most remarkable beyond all question is Mr. Shorthouse's "John Inglesant," a work which, so far as the actual date of publication goes, falls slightly beyond our period, having appeared in London in the summer of 1881, and having already had an earlier private circulation in the North. It was not, however, till the winter of 1882 that the work became generally popular, and that the reading public, and the public which makes believe to read, became aware that another original intellect and a new influence in literature had appeared. Of the other new names which have become known in the literary world during the year, perhaps the most important is that of Mr. Anstey, the writer of "Vice Versa," a work which for freshness, originality, and humour, thoroughly deserved the large measure of popularity it obtained.

These are new comers in the literary arena. It is, however, one of the veteran literary men of the age who first claims detailed notice at our hands. Mr. Froude's "Thomas Carlyle: a History of the First Forty Years of His Life," appeared in the March of this year. Every one will remember how quickly the shock produced by the publication of Carlyle's "Reminiscences" followed on the emotion caused by his death. Men were still thinking tenderly of the great writer, who had lived to win universal affection in spite of the hard things he had said of his generation, when they learned with pain and surprise that he had habitually

judged individuals as he did the world. It is no exaggeration to say that Mr. Froude's book has revived, and in many cases intensified, the effect produced by the "Reminiscences." It had been said that they represented only a phase of Carlyle's mind—the bitter sorrow, and the anger, intensified by self-reproach, which followed the death of his wife. The history of the first forty years of his life entirely disposed of this well-meant explanation. As Carlyle was in 1866 so he was from the beginning. The world had to accept him as he was. The effect of this discovery was truly lamentable. That respect for Mr. Carlyle which was so universal, and so universally compatible with a knowledge of a twentieth part of his writings, nearly expired under the "Reminiscences." A subscription which was being collected to put up a monument to the author of "Hudson's Statue," absolutely fell through. What the "Reminiscences" and the magazine articles spared the "history" has destroyed. It is now perfectly clear that Carlyle was "gey ill to live wi'"; that he was quick to anger and scorn, and that he could allow a delicate woman to live a life of martyrdom by his side and for him, and never know it till too late. Worst of all, perhaps—at least, smallest of all—dyspepsia made him peevish and exacting. For ourselves we cannot profess to lament it. It is not our duty here to give a portrait or an estimate of Carlyle; we are dealing only with Mr. Froude's book, and in that we think it can only be counted as a merit to have told all this. To borrow a phrase from the scientific writers of the day, we are to believe not what is pleasant but what is true. Mr. Froude's facts have not been disputed; indeed, much the greater part of his two volumes consists of letters which are themselves authorities. He has amply justified himself for telling unpleasant truths by a quotation from Carlyle's own essay on "Lockhart's Life of Scott," which lays down the rule that if we are to have a biography of a man it should tell us everything. Mr. Froude's work, which he modestly says is not a biography, but the materials for one, does give everything, and therefore it is important for more than the greatness of the subject. It is one of the few lives in all literature which show us the man as he was, and not as the writer thought it well he should seem to have been. Carlyle protested against shams all his life, and the thorough honesty of his biography is a protest against them from the grave. In a certain sense Mr. Froude is right in saying that his book is not a biography. It is not such a work as Carlyle's own "Life of Sterling," or the "Agricola" of Tacitus. Such books can only be written by a

very great man on a much smaller one; but it is a biography, as much as Boswell's "Life of Johnson," and that is enough.

Before parting with Mr. Froude's two volumes we may point out some of the vast treasures of beauty and pathos and instruction which they contain. Perhaps the most humanly interesting is the story of Carlyle's wooing and marriage. It is told in his own letters, and in those of his wife, while what explanation is strictly necessary is given in the lucid connecting narrative of Mr. Froude. That is to say, it is told by three master writers, for in letter-writing Mrs. Carlyle handled the pen only less well than her husband at his best. The figure of Mrs. Carlyle is beautiful and touching throughout. If no line she wrote remained except the letter in which she gives the history of her victory over Giant Despair in the humble kitchen at Craigenputtock, it would be enough to justify those who considered her to be almost as great as her husband. Well worth study, also, is the marvellous picture the book affords of the peasant life of Scotland. The Carlyle family was an admirable specimen of that broad and solid foundation of the Scots nation. They had all the finest qualities of the class—their family affection, their high probity, their frugality, and their capacity for hard work. With them—since it is given to no man to jump off his shadow—they had their unamiable features. They were clannish, and, like James Carlyle, the father, not easy to love, keeping all that was best in them for one another. They were not the kind of people who go well into an ideal. Their task in the world was to make their way by hard and persistent labour.

Foremost among the purely historical works by writers of established reputation which have appeared in the year, we must in justice put Mr. Freeman's "Reign of William Rufus." It is the completion of a great work, which would have been enough to fill the life of a less prolific and laborious writer. Mr. Freeman has intended his "Reign of Rufus" to be the necessary sequel to his standard work on the Conquest. In summing up the consequences of that capital event in our history, he had already gone over much of the ground traversed in his two new volumes, but he had gone over it rapidly; now he re-traverses it carefully, noting everything to its minutest detail. It would be a work of supererogation, if not an impertinence, to praise the high qualities of Mr. Freeman's history. He has made all that period his own, and speaks with authority. Our task is the more modest one of merely pointing out what he has done. He has told how, first under Rufus, and then by Henry I., the work of welding Normans and Englishmen into one

people was carried through. He ends with the surrender of Shrewsbury to Henry by Robert of Bellême, and marks that as the point at which the two races cease to be engaged in open strife. The later struggle against the foreigners in England was not against the Norman, but against the French favourites of the weaker Angevin kings of Henry the Second's dynasty. In his narrative Mr. Freeman shows us the strong and brave, but monstrously wicked Rufus, warring with the unruly Norman barons, who looked on England as their fairly-won booty, relying in the moment of danger on his English subjects, and then in the hour of victory becoming the cruel oppressor of both. When the Red King has come to his sudden and mysterious end, we see his strong and law-loving brother ruling both sternly, but in the main with justice. The machinery of government used by the brothers for war, for justice, and for finance, is vigorously described, and we have a long series of portraits of such widely different men as the two kings themselves, Anselm, Helias of Maine, Ranulf, Flambard, and Robert of Bellême. With the essential justice of the portraits, no man who has not some approach to Mr. Freeman's own marvellous knowledge has a right to quarrel. There are not probably two other men in England who are qualified to question his accuracy of detail. But even the unlearned reader may fairly protest against the injustice done to better-known men of later times than Rufus, by Mr. Freeman's fierce hatred of the name of chivalry. It is, for instance, scarcely true to say that Bayard refused to mount the breach at Padua from fear, or because he thought rough work of that kind should be left to the foot-soldiers. The truth is, that he very properly refused to allow his men-at-arms to be sacrificed by the selfishness and undiscipline of the Emperor Maximilian's German horse. He and the other two French officers were quite ready to take their share of the work, but not inclined to do it all for their greedy allies. If it were not that what Mr. Freeman says of Bayard indicated the spirit in which he has written much of his book, it would not be necessary to dwell on such a detail. The great and permanent value of the work is not affected by it. We cannot do better than leave Mr. Freeman to sum up the results of his life of Rufus in his own words:—

“Of all the endings of kings in our long history, the two most impressive are surely the two that are most opposite. There is the death of the king who fell suddenly in the height of his power, by an unknown hand in the thickest depths of the forest; and there is the death of the king, who, fallen from his power, was brought forth to die by the stroke of the headsman, before the windows of his own palace, in the sight of his people, and of the sun.

The striking nature of the tale is worthy of its long remembrance, but one could almost wish that the name of the supposed actor in the death of Rufus had never attached itself to the story. The dark words of the chronicle are, in truth, more impressive than the tale, true or false, of Walter Tirel. Rufus was shot in his hunting by his own men. That is enough; his day was over. A life was ended, stained with deeds which, in our history, at least, stand out without fellow before or after; but a life in which we may here and there see signs of great power wasted, even of momentary feelings which might have been trained into something nobler. As it is, the career of William the Red is one of which the kindest words we can say are, that he always kept his word when it was plighted in a certain form, and that he was less cruel in his own person than many men of his time, than some better men than himself. But, however we judge of the man, there is but one judgment to be passed on the reign, The arrow, by whomsoever shot, set England free from oppression, such as she never felt before or after at the hand of a single man."

This is an equally lucid and dignified piece of prose, altogether free from certain affectations which occasionally offend in Mr. Freeman's style.

Those who remembered how keen an interest was taken in the first two volumes of Mr. Lecky's "History of England in the Eighteenth Century," had some excuse for being surprised at the indifference which was displayed to the third and fourth. It was to be explained, however, in various ways, of which, however, any falling-off in the writer's power is not one. They appeared when other books occupied the field, and there was enough in the state of public affairs to employ most of us; and although Mr. Lecky wrote with undiminished power, he was not seen to such advantage as in the first volumes. There he had to describe the general condition of the country, and large movements of a religious character. Moreover, he had a singularly fine opening in his chapter on Ireland for a new and striking narrative. The subject was in the hands of Macaulay and Mr. Froude, and was still to be done. The part of the eighteenth century with which the third and fourth volumes deal, that which extends from the end of the seven years' war down to the beginning of the French Revolution, is both less attractive in itself and less adapted to show Mr. Lecky's faculties at their best. The great feature of our own history during those years is a party struggle, in which it is not easy to feel much sympathy, and still less easy to hold the balance fairly. Mr. Lecky holds it, we cannot help thinking, with a somewhat unsteady hand. His judgments are often vacillating—the

right-hand of the premise often does not know what the left-hand of the conclusion doeth. Take, for instance, his severe strictures on George III. for the line he took in many questions of the time—notably, in reference to the revolt of the American colonies. Mr. Lecky's own fundamental principle is that the majority of a people have a right to control the politics of their country. Now, he cannot and does not try to deny that the vast majority of the nation were strongly in favour of attempting to coerce the plantations back into union. In that case, it would appear to have been the king's duty to do exactly what he did; yet Mr. Lecky is very severe upon him for acting up to what he himself believes to be proper principles. There is an almost precisely similar unsteadiness of judgment in Mr. Lecky's account of the great Whig and Tory struggle of the reign. He is overpowered by the liberal associations of the word Whig, and quite fails to realise the fact that the Tory of that generation, though he may have belonged to a minority of the nation, was at least a member of a party. The so-called Whig party was a narrow oligarchy.

Mr. Gardiner has carried on his great work on the history of England in the seventeenth century down to the fall of the monarchy of Charles I. It is not yet finished, and, indeed, it scarcely can be till the historian reaches the ground already occupied by Macaulay. Up to the present it has been carried to the point at which the attempt of Charles to govern without a parliament completely broke down. The events of those years are sufficiently known. The outbreak of the Scots against the ecclesiastical policy of the King, the failure of the attempt to coerce them, the appeal to the Parliament, and its eager seizing on the chance to revenge itself on Strafford. The story has often been told, and, as far as story-telling goes as well or better, told than by Mr. Gardiner; but he performs his task with an impartiality and a thorough acquaintance with the subject hitherto unknown. At times, indeed, his impartiality takes the somewhat unsatisfactory form of declaring that there is no particular difference between men widely separated in character, and of very various degrees of worth, because they happened to use the same instrument. In this way he gives his readers to understand that he cannot see much to choose between the violent Royalist minister and the violent Parliamentary agitator, since both alike used party wire-pulling for their very different purposes. In fact, Mr. Gardiner's impartiality is largely due to a certain want of sympathy with either of the extreme parties, which again leads him into something like undue admiration for a variety of ingenious compromises such as are always apt to be proposed in

times of revolution and war. These, however, are features in the work which, though they perhaps diminish its interest, to a superficial or careless reader, do not really affect its value as a most instructive history. Mr. Gardiner writes with that fulness and certainty of knowledge which comes only to those who have studied every detail of a period of history, and every action of its leading characters, as closely and completely as he has done. To the historical student the series of works by Mr. Gardiner, of which the present one is the latest, with their scholarlike thoroughness, and studied moderation of style and thought, form the most valuable modern contribution to the history of the first half of the sixteenth century.

In Mr. Green's "Making of England" we have an historical monograph which furnishes, in most respects, a remarkable contrast to Mr. Gardiner's volumes. Mr. Green is what Mr. Gardiner has never succeeded in becoming, or perhaps has never essayed to become; he is essentially a "popular" author. He writes with the vigour and liveliness of style, and in the dramatic and picturesque manner, without which an elaborate history has little chance of being generally read by a superficial generation of readers. But Mr. Green is something more than a brilliant writer with a knack of putting things well. He is a careful and laborious student of the records of the past, whether they are contained in the manuscript room of the British Museum, or imprinted on English manners and customs, and on the face of English scenery, and he is, perhaps, the most distinguished of the younger graduates in that school of painstaking and erudite historians, of which Professor Stubbs and Mr. Freeman are the recognised masters. In the "Making of England" he gives a vivid and striking picture of the series of events which settled the tribes, who were once called the "Anglo-Saxons," in the land of their adoption, and drove the Celt to the mountains and valleys of the north and west. The state of England as it was in the sixth and seventh centuries, the strange mingling of Roman civilisation with the barbarism of the British tribesmen, the long and difficult struggle till the conquest was effected, the wars and rivalries of the conquering peoples among themselves, are portrayed with wonderful life and power, if, perhaps, with a little of that sensationalism which occasionally disfigured the "History of the English People." Mr. Green's topographical studies have been used with excellent effect, and his book is, on the whole, accurate and trustworthy, as well as thoroughly readable from beginning to end.

Mrs. Oliphant has taken a place among the historical writers of the year by publishing "A Literary History of England,

1790—1825." The undertaking has not perhaps been among the happiest of the many works of this most copious and popular writer. It was, in the first place, a somewhat unhappy venture as a mere matter of size and binding considerations, which have more to do with the success of a book than the author—who is naturally inclined to value other things—is always ready to acknowledge. The work was in three heavy volumes, which were scarcely handsome enough for the drawing-room table, and were too big to be read, except with a book-rest, and reading in that way is a very serious business, something like working at a profession. From a merely literary and critical point of view Mrs. Oliphant's book had also its faults. It was too full for a handbook, and not full enough for a history. Some of the literary judgments were curious enough, and the critical method of much was wondrous lax, but there was some of it which had a high degree of merit. Mrs. Oliphant's chapter on Jane Austen was of very considerable value. She is thoroughly mistress of the subject, and as competent as any writer of our time to tell us what makes a good novel. The poet Cowper is the best treated after Miss Austen. Of course, as in anything Mrs. Oliphant writes, there is a great deal of agreeable writing and a great deal of pleasant talk about people and the lives they led.

At the very close of the year another literary history has been published, which differs from the last in many respects. We refer to the "Short History of French Literature," which Mr. George Saintsbury has brought out in the Clarendon Press. Mr. Saintsbury was already widely known as an authority on French literature both in England and America. His *Primer of French literature* was known and valued as giving more information in a compact form, and with more admirable arrangement, than almost any book of the kind. The *Short History* is the *Primer* grown to a good middle height. It would be rash to pass judgment on a work which covers so great a field, and which, moreover, deals with a host of things very little known even by scholars, and scarcely known to the mass of readers even by name. We can only give a very superficial judgment on what Mr. Saintsbury has done. What he has meant to do he tells us himself in his preface. He has tried, first of all Englishmen, to write a history of French literature from the original sources, and not from other histories. His work is divided into five books, of which the first is devoted to the mediæval literature, and the four following to the schools, and the great writers who have succeeded one another since Villon. Mr. Saintsbury gives his reason for crowding all the writers of the nineteenth century into one book, and that by



no means the longest, and we cannot deny that they have force. There are some subjects so large that it is only possible to deal with them in a very compressed way. Yet we think that Mr. Saintsbury has erred on the side of compressing too much, and that he has left himself no choice but to do so, by giving far too much attention to the earlier history of French literature—not more attention than it deserves, of course, but more than is reasonable to give it in a work of this kind. The mediæval literature which Mr. Saintsbury so justly admires will never be much read except by scholars, to whom his *Short History* can tell little they do not know already. Readers of French books, in nineteen cases out of twenty, read the works published in this century, and it is for these that they need a guide.

There are some books which are remarkable less for any merit of their own than on account of the author. The book becomes known by the doings of the author, not the author by the excellences of the book. Such a work is Mr. Wilfrid Scawen Blunt's "*Future of Islam*." Everybody knows it has been written, because everybody has heard of the writer. Yet the "*Future of Islam*" has some valuable qualities of its own. Oriental scholars declare that Mr. Blunt knows nothing about the history of Islam, and readers who are not Orientalists can see that he has written under the influence of prejudice and excited feelings. Nevertheless, it is very striking as a piece of writing. There is something fascinating to the imagination in the possibilities of politics and religion in the East, and an atmosphere of poetry and romance hangs round the name of Arabia. These elements Mr. Blunt has worked up with much skill. He believes that there is a great future for Islam, and that the Arab who founded it will also be its regenerator. All this we may believe to be what the Earl of Murray calls a "fond imagination," but we cannot deny that Mr. Blunt has made it attractive.

Another, and a much less pleasant, book which is chiefly noteworthy because of its author, has been Mr. Mallock's "*Social Equality*." The ingenious author undertakes to prove that all the political troubles—or most of them—which distract this generation are the result of the mean passion of envy. We are not deferential enough to our betters. Too many of us refuse to bow to superiorities. It is well that we should practice the grace of reverence, no doubt, but we should wish that Mr. Mallock had called on us to bow to superiorities of another kind. Stripped of its somewhat transparent veil, Mr. Mallock's idol is simply money, and nothing more. Very likely there is a leaven of meanness in Radicalism—something of the kind has mingled with

the zeal of higher kinds of reformers than the Radical—but it is hardly true to say that envy is the only, or, indeed, the chief motive by which he is influenced. It would be equally just to say that Conservative feeling is the outcome of mere flunkeyism.

A third work, also of a somewhat nondescript kind, is Professor Blackie's "Altavona." We should say Mr. Blackie, late Professor at Edinburgh; for, since the book has appeared, he has resigned the chair of Greek of the Scotch University, in which he has been so prominent a figure for many years. "Altavona" is quite in Mr. Blackie's best style—Greek and Free Church of Scotland, the virtues of the Highlanders, deer-stalking, and Gaelic poetry (whatever it may be), eating and drinking, are all jostled together in profusion. It is needless to say that Mr. Blackie takes that view of the Highlander which has been popular in Scotland since Sir Walter Scott made away with the old Lowland notion. And, even though we decline to believe in Arcadias, north of the Frith of Forth as well as elsewhere, we can acknowledge that there is a great deal to be said for the modern view. When the Greek and the translations of Gaelic poetry are deducted from "Altavona," there is much left which is interesting, and even profitable, to read.

For readers who take an interest in the History of the Church of England, and the religious thought of our time—and there can be very few deserving the name who do not—none of the books published within the last twelve months can have proved more attractive than the *Reminiscences* of the Rev. T. Mozley. The author was a Fellow of Oriel with Cardinal Newman, at a time when that college was the home of a body of men who were profoundly affecting their generation. He went up to Oriel from the famous Charterhouse School which Thackeray loved to write about, and was successively Newman's pupil as an undergraduate, his colleague as a fellow, and his successor in the editorship of the *British Critic*. His connection with the college extended over a long period of years. In the pages of his *reminiscences* will be found the best history of the Tractarian movement to be met with out of the "Apologia," and a perfect gallery of portraits. It begins with the men who were ruling Oxford when he went up to Oriel—Copleston, Whately, and others; and includes Keble, Newman, Hurrell Froude, Marriott, the Wilberforces, Oakeley, and Ward. The roll of names would be enough to show what the interest of the book must be, and Mr. Mozley has heightened it by the courteous spirit, and the humour with which he treats of the men and things which come under his notice.

Canon Farrar's "Early Days of Christianity," which appears at the very close of our period, will be welcomed by the very large circle of readers who were interested by his two earlier works on sacred history. In the present volume he does for the later books of the New Testament what in the "Life of Christ" and "Life of St. Paul" he did for the Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles. Beginning with a brief historical review of the state of Roman institutions and Roman society in the first century of our era, he sketches with wonderful vividness and power of language the reign of the imperial madman whom the early Christians identified with Antichrist. Scarcely, even in the pages of the great classic originals on whom Canon Farrar bases his narrative, is there a more forcible picture of the court of Nero in all its corrupt degradation, and of that society, superficially brilliant, but inwardly rotten to the core, which lives again in the indignant verses of Juvenal. The contrast between the Roman nobility, sated with wealth, jaded with lust, and wearied with deep-rooted unbelief, and the simple earnestness and abiding faith of the Primitive Church has often been drawn, but seldom more appositely than in the present work. Passing on from the relations of the Church to the Empire, Canon Farrar discusses the character, origin, and authorship of the various Epistles and of the Apocalyptic books, with a fulness of learning and a knowledge of the vast literature of the subject which leaves little to be desired. And dealing with a topic which presents every temptation to wild hypothesis and venturesome criticism, Canon Farrar is generally moderate and judicious. His view of the Apocalypse is, that the author is certainly describing some contemporary tyrant, just as Daniel describes Antiochus Epiphanes; that the dragon or serpent means the emperor; and that prudence compelled St. John to write in cypher, so to speak, and declare the name of the man he meant under a numerical symbol. As an instance of great learning and acuteness in argument, may be mentioned the elaborate and interesting, if not always quite conclusive, discussion as to the authorship of the Epistle to the Hebrews. It is needless to say that in this work, as in the others that have proceeded from Canon Farrar's pen, the style is throughout vigorous and graphic, frequently rising to passages of real eloquence.

It is a serious undertaking to speak of the novels of any year; they are such a large and influential body among books. Only a few can by any possibility be named. None of our novel-writers whose names have been long familiar to the public can be said to have added seriously to their reputation since last September. Mr. Blackmore's "Christowel" is no excep-

tion. Being his work, it can scarcely fail to have passages of description of scenery of great beauty, and characters of pathetic humour; but he has done far better before. The central figure is an old gentleman, who has lived a life of obscurity under suspicion of having misconducted himself as an officer. In reality, he has unselfishly taken upon himself the consequences of a brother's ill-doing. The story passes in the west country, which Mr. Blackmore knows so well and has made us all know in his wonderful "Lorna Doone," a work which in its kind has no second among contemporary novels. Mr. Hardy's "Laodicean" has all the appearance of having been written mainly to please the writer. The grotesque side of his humour, which lent delightful touches to his other books, has overpowered everything in his "Laodicean." The heroine is more fantastic, more capricious and wayward, than any character of those old stories written to satirise her sex ever were; and the fortunes of a building are so extraordinarily mixed up with the loves of the architect that the reader almost ends by asking himself whether Mr. Hardy has not suddenly resolved to rival Hoffman. Certainly that eccentric genius never invented anything more wonderful than the subordinate personages. Mr. Walter Besant has made a raid into future centuries in his "Revolt of Man." Given a state of things in which women had usurped the supremacy of the stronger sex, the problem is to describe what would probably happen. What would happen, according to Mr. Besant, is that the women would soon become very tired of it, and would be infinitely delighted to see a male insurgent restore the ancient state of things by force. Mr. Trollope has also cast an eye into futurity in "The Final Period," which puzzled its readers very considerably when it was coming out in *Blackwood*. Mr. Trollope's ideal world of the future is an, at present unknown, island of Britannula, in the Pacific, on which an English colony will establish itself, and will, in due course, become independent. Then it will determine on improving the lot of everybody by fixing a period beyond which the life of man shall not be allowed to extend. As the first founders are all young, the plan looks very acceptable at first; but, as the fatal day draws near for those who are to go, public opinion is modified, particularly among the old; hence complications, with which various love stories are mingled. There is more given humour than we expected from Mr. Trollope in many passages of this little book, and it is certainly remarkable to see a veteran and prolific writer take such an entirely new departure.

Another novel which obtained popularity enough to entitle it to notice was Mr. Herman C. Merivale's "Faucit of Balliol." It

was remarkable, apart from its merits, for the circumstances under which it was published. It is perhaps the first instance on record of a novel made out of a play by the dramatist himself. If the thing has been done before it has been rarely done. The foundation of "Faucit of Balliol" was Mr. Merivale's play, the "Cynic," which had a dubious success at the Globe Theatre. The story is essentially the same. A wicked Count Lestrangle undertakes, partly for a consideration but more from pure love of mischief, to ruin a young married woman by tempting her to sin with an old lover. He is defeated less by the virtues of his proposed victims than by their good luck, and is punished by a flash of lightning. The motive and the machinery of the story are far from new. They are so old that when the "Cynic" was played everybody saw a resemblance (which was, it is true, avowed on the play bill) to a legend which is now tolerably ancient—the loves of Faust and Margaret. But in essentials all stories are old; only the way of telling can be new, and Mr. Merivale has told his in good English and with much freshness of treatment.

It is, however, as we have said, from the pen of a "new writer" that the most important of recent novels emanates. By no means the most favourable, and by far the most competent, of Mr. Shorthouse's critics has said that the great success of "John Inglesant" does honour to the much abused subscribers to Mudie's. Certainly a public which buys a philosophical romance, even to the eleventh and twelfth thousand, may fairly consider itself entitled to reject with scorn the name of frivolous. Mr. Shorthouse has told us himself that although he put romance *tout court* on his title-page, it has been his intention to make his work philosophical. We need not quarrel with the adjective, for though that imposing word may be used with accuracy of every tale which deals thoughtfully with the life and character of man, all do not do it in the same degree, or equally openly. A romance in which questions of philosophy are discussed at length, is fairly entitled to describe itself as philosophical.

Following the example set him by Defoe, and which Thackeray revived in his incomparable Esmond, Mr. Shorthouse gives what may be called the skeleton of his hero's history in a lengthy heading. From that we may learn all that it is necessary to mention here of the merely mechanical part of the work. John Inglesant is a Cavalier gentleman, educated by a Jesuit in a species of Christian Platonism. He has the misfortune to be compromised in King Charles's negotiations with the Irish rebels, and he passes many years in exile in France and Italy, during which he has exceptional opportunities of be-

coming acquainted with the inner life of the Papal Court. Mr. Shorthouse has obviously chosen a sufficiently wide field; he has taken all the politics and religion of the seventeenth century to be his province. To fill it thoroughly would be no easy task, and almost as a matter of course the author has made some mistakes. We do not particularly refer to the little slips about matters of fact, such as describing Milton as secretary years before he held office, or introducing Bradshaw as president of a court not yet in existence at the time of which Mr. Shorthouse is writing. Such mistakes should be avoided, but they are, after all, of minor importance. It is a far graver fault to introduce such an impossible personage as the Jesuit Santa Clara, or to misrepresent the character of Laud. The worst of all is to give a false picture of a whole party. The way in which Mr. Shorthouse commits this latter blunder is highly characteristic. He speaks of the concealed Papists of Charles's reign with something like respect, at least with kindly tolerance and a careful suppression of the meaner side of their conduct while for the Puritans he has nothing but hatred and contempt, and in one passage a foolish, affected pity. It is quite in keeping with this readiness to forgive the double-dealer and the coward, but not the strong man armed, who throws away the scabbard when he draws the sword, that Mr. Shorthouse has given us a hero concerning whom it is barely possible to discover, whether he is meant to represent the delicate man who shrinks from extremes or the weakling who can resolve on nothing except to obey the orders of a master. At the close of the preface which he has prefixed to one of the later editions, Mr. Shorthouse has written one sentence which his enemies may well quote against him; he says, "I have ventured to depict the Cavalier as not invariably a drunken brute, and spiritual life and growth as not exclusively the possession of Puritans and Ascetics." If it were not for the wide reading, of which the book gives ample proof, we might almost be tempted to ask where Mr. Shorthouse stopped in his researches into English literature, by such a statement as this. Surely of the great opposing parties of the seventeenth century it is not the Cavalier who has suffered from unfriendly portrait painters?

But whatever the faults of "John Inglesant" may be, they do not affect its literary value essentially. Many errors in matters of fact would be required to counterbalance the wonderfully consistent character of the hero. That he is, perhaps, not exactly true to his time is possible—good scholars have said as much—but he is true to human nature. There is an abundance of such men among us to-day. The subordinate characters are often a little

hazy, but there is never any doubt as to how and why they influence John Inglesant, and they are introduced for no other purpose. Some of the historical characters have even a considerable degree of life. Mr. Gardiner has praised the character of the King and of Lord Biron. Hobbes, the philosopher, who appears in one scene only, stands out as distinctly as either. The Spanish quietist, Michael de Molinos, is no less vivid. Readers who care little for the philosophy or the portrait painting have been attracted by the merely dramatic power of the book. There is nothing better in the tales of the most melodramatic of writers, than the scene on the scaffold, when Inglesant is led out, as he supposes, for execution; or than the appearance of the ghost of Strafford. The literary art of Mr. Shorthouse is, perhaps, at its best in the second volume, where he has to show how the brilliant world of Italy affected his hero, and how the impressions of the outer world were, in their turn, coloured and modified by his strange character. To pretend to give a just impression of such a whole by quotations would be the most foolish of undertakings, but we may select one passage from the second volume, both as an example of Mr. Shorthouse's style, and because it contains a singularly fine summary of a certain philosophy of life. It is the Cardinal Rinuccini, a courtly, scholarly, sceptical Roman ecclesiastic who speaks. "There is no solution, believe me," said the Cardinal, "no solution of life's enigma worth the reading. . . . I have heard, and you doubtless, in a fine concerto of viols, extemporary descant upon a thorough bass in the Italian manner, when each performer in turn plays such variety of descant, in concordance to the bass, as his skill and present invention may suggest to him. In this manner of play the consonances invariably fall true upon a given note, and every succeeding note of the ground is met, now in the unison or octave, now in the concords, preserving the melody throughout by the laws of motion and sound. I have thought that this is life. To a solemn bass of mystery and of the unseen, each man plays his own descant, as his taste or fate suggests: but this manner of play is so governed and controlled by what seems a fatal necessity, that all melts into a species of harmony; and even the very discords and dissonances, the wild passions and deeds of man are so attuned and adjusted that without them the entire piece would be incomplete. In this way I look upon life as a spectacle 'in theatro ludus.'"

The writer of "Vice Versa," who by choice or accident comes before us under the name of the author of the *New Bath Guide*, deals with an entirely different world. Mr. Anstey makes an ironical apology "for a tale which has the unambitious and frivolous aim of

mere amusement," and he does not concern himself at all in "Vice Versa" with anything so lofty as Platonism, or the fates of nations. His field is schoolboy life, one which has been cultivated by many, and which he still has almost to himself. With the small exception of the author of "Tom Brown's Schooldays," Mr. Anstey's predecessors have done little but scratch the surface, in a more or less perfunctory manner, for the purpose of teaching boys doubtful theories as to their duties in life, whereby they have bored ingenuous youth and gained only the languid approval of their elders. Very different is Mr. Anstey's method. He draws a certain kind of school-life as it is, and does not preach. Whoever counts among his experiences some years spent in a small private school, under a worthy man of no particular faculty for teaching, will recognise Crichton House, Rodwell Regis, and its most well-meaning head, Dr. Grimstone. And the story has a fantastic machinery, which improves the interest and does not spoil the truth. By a wonderful irruption of Oriental magic, a ponderous city gentleman—by name Paul Bultitude—is made to change places with his son, Dick, and is sent to find out what Crichton House is like for himself. He has hitherto had a theoretical conviction—useful for the purpose of lecturing Dick—that it is an abode of unmixed joy, and that a boy's life is, indeed, a happy one. When the soul and character of Mr. Paul Bultitude is by some tricky sprite locked in the body of his son, various things lead him to modify this opinion. He soon finds how dreadful a person the schoolmaster can be, seen from below, and what a tyrant the schoolboy can show himself. Never was an unhappy gentleman more painfully taught how to put himself in another's place so as to judge with understanding. The fun of the book—and it is full of fun—arises mainly from the extraordinary incongruity between what Mr. Bultitude knows to be his real position, and what everybody else is convinced is the real state of affairs. He has all the habits and tastes of a middle-aged man, very conscious of being a worshipful person, in the midst of a pack of boys, and in the body of one of themselves. He is continually attempting to make Dr. Grimstone understand his unfortunate position, and never succeeding. If the unexpected is, indeed, the soul of wit, as some have maintained, then the scene in the train, as Mr. Paul Bultitude is carried off to school imprisoned in the appearance of Dick, and shut up in a railway carriage with several young scamps who firmly believe themselves to be his schoolfellows, and under charge of Dr. Grimstone, is one of the wittiest things ever written. He is continually acting in his real character of middle-aged city man, and being treated as a boy. Dr. Grimstone



wonders how the reckless Dick has become such a prig, and the other boys are furious with him for turning sneak. Hence innumerable miseries arise on poor Mr. Bultitude. And to justify the sub-title of the book, "A Lesson to Fathers," many of his sufferings arise out of his own sins towards his son. He has caused certain pets which Dick had collected during the holidays to be made away with, and on arriving at school finds himself called upon to produce them or pay for them, as they had been purchased for other boys. Their value just amounts to all the pocket-money he has—five shillings, which he had given his son, who vainly begged for a handsomer tip. It will be seen that Mr. Bultitude's sins are not very heavy, being only want of sympathy and testy impatience with boy nature; but they have been enough to make Dick unhappy needlessly, and put a gulf between father and son. Mr. Anstey shows that he possesses true humour—which has been called thinking in jest and feeling in earnest—by the way in which he makes all the father's ludicrous misadventures work towards establishing kindlier relations between the two. The character of Dr. Grimstone is drawn with masterly touches, and is, as literary art, of more value than those fantastic parts of the book which have done more for its popularity. He is a perfectly well-meaning, and naturally not an unkindly man, who contrives to keep his scholars depressed and unhappy simply because he does not understand them. He has taken up teaching as a trade, and expects his boys to reason and act like some race of imaginary creatures, and according to an artificial standard. It is inconceivable to the worthy man that boys should not like heavy suet pudding, and rather shrink from his company at football. The idea of leaving boys to themselves, or crediting them with tastes, is monstrous in the eyes of Dr. Grimstone. He feels called upon to think for them in the smallest details, and is quite unknowingly an oppressive tyrant. He has a fidgetty sense that they are all desperately wicked, and that it is his especial function to instil good morals into them; and in unwise pursuit of an excellent object he encourages the most despicable form of boy nature—the spy and tell-tale. Mr. Grimstone's under-masters, his own family, and his school, are all grouped round him in an admirable manner. Although we only accept Mr. Anstey's declaration that his book is a trifle under protest, we do not of course profess to rank it with the great works of fiction; but it deserves to stand high among the more brilliant works of the second order. As a piece of workmanship, it is worthy of the highest praise, being finished, balanced, and consistent with itself. The account of Mr. Paul Bultitude's escape from school is a capital piece of sensational

writing, which contrives to be simple and healthy. Dulcie Grimstone and Mr. Bultitude's little boy Rolly give the book a touch of what is almost poetry.

Mr. George Augustus Sala, who has been favoured by fortune with the opportunity of carrying out his long cherished plan of visiting the Southern States of the Union, has shared his pleasures with the public by publishing an account of his journey, under the title of "America Revisited." The wish was formed many years ago, when Mr. Sala was watching the great war from the outside of the line of Federal blockading squadrons. On this occasion, Mr. Sala has not had to wait outside, or, worse still, to follow the march of the armies with which he did not sympathise. He has gone right through the South, and out of it by a route which went from New York, by Baltimore, Richmond, Augusta, Atlanta, New Orleans, Chicago, Omaha, San Francisco, and the Salt Lake City. That Mr. Sala has found anything new or profound to say on the subject of America we will not assert. The man who can find anything new to say on the subject is, we should imagine, still to be born. But he has certainly contrived to say a good deal that is entertaining, which is merit enough. Everybody who goes to America at all describes the elaborate pig-killing machinery at Chicago, and is a tedium. Mr. Sala describes it, and is both funny and instructive. Anybody can see the poor porker put through the machine, but it is not everybody who can observe and adequately convey the expression of his various emotions. That Mr. Sala does, and as he made honey out of the mechanical slaughter houses of Chicago, so he does of everything that came in his way in America.

The only volume of poetry which has attracted considerable notice has come from the fertile pen of Mr. Swinburne, who has, like Mr. Matthew Arnold, taken in hand the old story of Tristram and Iseulte. What that remarkable writer, whose genius is made up of layers of poetic genius and of something for which it is hard to find a polite name, as the mind of Don Quixote was streaked with sanity and madness, has made of a story which gave him terrible opportunities for the display of his worst qualities, we think it would be inconvenient to try and say. With the story of Tristram he has published a number of minor poems, among which are some obviously inspired by Victor Hugo's "Art d'être grand-père," which are touching and beautiful. They are devoted to a child, and are called the "Dark Month." A number of sonnets are also included, some full of sound and fury, and some full of power. There is one which could serve as an excellent *memoria technica* for students about to be examined in the Elizabethan dramatic

literature, and one on Shakespeare, which compares curiously with a torrential and frothy ode on Victor Hugo. Of the immense army of minor poets no reasonable man will speak if he can help it. Not one in a hundred of them has published anything which shows more than the wish to write respectable verse. Among the exceptions we may mention a neat volume of poems by Mr. W. H. Pollock, which shows a complete freedom from affectation, and a remarkable skill in writing French verse.

At the very close of the year, Mr. Andrew Lang, who is well known as a writer of brilliant verse, has published a poem of some length on "Helen of Troy," in which he appears as the defender of that much wronged lady's reputation. It has generally been supposed, that although Aphrodite had a good deal to do with the elopement from Lacedæmon, yet Helen was not wholly innocent. Some have been found to assert that she never eloped at all, but was safe in Egypt through the whole war, while a simulacrum did duty for her at Troy. For those however who did believe she went, the question of her guilt has not generally been doubtful. Mr. Lang reconciles the hypothesis of her innocence, and her actual presence in Troy, by throwing all the guilt on the goddess, who deprives her victim of memory and will. Mr. Lang is thoroughly competent to write on such a subject, both as a master of verse, and as a Homeric scholar. It may perhaps be a bold thing to differ from Mr. Lang on a classical question, and so we will say nothing as to the propriety—given the surroundings—of his words, or of his incidents. We should imagine however, that anybody who knows the old story—even supposing them to have gone no nearer than Pope's translation—will think that it has been greatly lessened in dramatic force by Mr. Lang. As a mere story, we prefer the adventures of the sinning and repenting Helen, who has some human life and force, to the mischances of Mr. Lang's unlucky puppet. We should also doubt the propriety of making Helen scold the goddess. The people of the ancient world were less courageous, they had not all the moral superiority over their gods shown by this new Helen. Mr. Lang's Aphrodite seems to show that there was some reason in the old religious idea that the heathen divinities were indeed fiends allowed to play their pranks on earth. But, whatever we may think of the characters or the dramatic value of Mr. Lang's version of the story of Helen of Troy, there can be no question as to the beauty of his verse.

The series of handbooks of different kinds which are now so common seem to call for some notice. First among them in merit we must place "The English Men of Letters," edited by Mr.

Morley, and to which many of the best of our critics have contributed. Some of the names included in the series may cause the reader a slight feeling of surprise, and still more some of the omissions, but the series is an admirable one on the whole. There have been added to it this year an excellent biography and criticism of Bentley, by Professor Jebb—a scholar who is thoroughly fitted for his task. It is certainly somewhat strange at first sight that Bentley, who was a scholar and commentator, should find a place in a series which is specially devoted to men of letters. The *raison d'être* of the book is probably rather the competence of the writer than the aptness of the subject. Readers who wish to know all that can be known of the author of the "Dissertation on the Letters of Phalaris" cannot do better than turn to Dr. Jebb. Mr. Edmund W. Gosse has contributed the volume on Gray, and Mr. Leslie Stephen has taken over the task of writing on Swift, which was to have fallen to Mr. Morley. That Mr. Stephen is competent to write on Swift no one can doubt; yet his book must take rank below that of Dr. Jebb. It is true that Swift presents a far larger, a far more difficult problem than Bentley. It is the literary and not the biographical side of his "Swift" of which critics have found fault; he fails in appreciation of the wilder wit of the great satirist. Additions have also been made to other and less-known series, such as the "New Plutarch," "The Great Artists," and so forth. There is possibly just something of a plethora of these books at present. They crowd a little too fast and thick on one another, till it would be the business of a lifetime to read them. Among the literary events of the year we should also notice the increased number of splendid editions of our classics which are being published. *Editions de luxe*, as it is the fashion to call them, are becoming continually more numerous, and a more severe trial to the economy of the lover of books. As an aid to his virtue, probably, they are mostly published in heavy quartos, which can only be read on a rest—and of which it is not the least merit that they look well on a shelf. Foremost among the publications of this class during the present year are the stately editions of Fielding, and the five splendid quarto volumes, copiously illustrated, of "Evelyn's Diary." Another and a different, but not less meritorious, class of editions have also become highly popular since the September of 1881. We refer to the thin, paper bound, cheap editions of standard and popular works which have been published at the ridiculously small sum of sixpence by several enterprising publishers, and some of which—Mr. Carlyle's "Sartor Resartus" among others—have met with a sale which does honour to the taste of that great reading public which cannot afford a guinea a volume.

Under the great and solemn heading of Philosophy we must mention two of the publications of the year, but we can do nothing but mention them. It would be impossible to treat them with any approach to sufficiency in the space at our disposal; and they are not books which can be disposed of by a few phrases, or criticised by a sentence or two. They must be handled adequately or not at all. The first of these to be named is Mr. Herbert Spencer's "Political Institutions," which forms the fifth part of his great work on the "Principles of Sociology." The other is Mr. Leslie Stephen's "Science of Ethics." It is needless to say that both belong to the class of books which can only be read, to say nothing of judged, with profit by those who bring a long course of study to the perusal.

The sale of the library which had been collected by Beckford, and carried to the Hamilton family by his daughter, was a literary event of some importance. The books went for an extraordinarily high average of prices, partly on account of the "vogue" which the sale had, and partly because of the fame of the library from which they came, but also to a great extent on account of their excellent condition, and the beauty of the binding—the work in very many cases of the best French workmen. An earlier great book sale was that of the Sunderland library, by which a famous collection made by more than one generation was brought to the hammer.

**Drama.**—The theatre has done more for literature this year than it is wont to do. That, it is true, is not saying much. As a rule it does nothing. But in the past twelvemonth we have to notice some resolute attempts to break away from "adaptations from the French." The first was Mr. Merivale's "Cynic," to which we have already referred as having given the foundation for his novel, "Faucit of Baliol." In spite of the excellent acting of Miss Litton and Mr. Herman Vezin, the play had only a very moderate degree of success. It was admirably written, and praised for its literary merit, but the public at large found it wanting in dramatic life. The talk was too obviously the main thing, and though good dialogue is more important than the worthy gentlemen who control our stage seem to be aware, yet by itself it is not enough. The fault of the "Cynic" was that characters came on and talked and went off, and then others followed and did likewise, and then nothing happened. Akin to the "Cynic" in their independence of direct French inspiration, if not in other qualities, were two plays, one of which appeared at the St. James's Theatre, the other at the Globe. These were, Mr. Pinero's "Squire" and "Far from the

Madding Crowd," a piece which Messrs. Comyns Carr and Hardy constructed out of the novel of the same name, which is universally considered the masterpiece of the last-named gentleman. The two plays are further joined in fate by the fact that they occasioned an addition to the long and melancholy history of the quarrels of authors. The "Squire" appeared first, though the other had been written before, and offered to the same theatre. The whole question was whether, seeing that they resembled one another in various respects, the "Squire" was an imitation of "Far from the Madding Crowd," and a conscious imitation, made with intent to do Messrs. Carr and Hardy no good turn. Into the merits of the question we do not propose to enter. The chronicler who details the incidents of a quarrel has a share in its wrongs, on which ever side they lie. It is enough to note the fact that the battle was fought. As for the merits of the plays themselves, the "Squire" was the better stage piece, and "Far from the Madding Crowd" the better written play. In the former we had something like the situations in the novel, with a dialogue which was as little like Mr. Hardy's as it well could be, and in "Far from the Madding Crowd" we had abundance of the talk of the novel, and not enough of that coherent development of action which is indispensable to the stage. Mr. Pinero gave us personages acting and talking as no species of creature ever did, except for the purpose of making a play. It was not life; it was not even any conceivable kind of fairyland, but it did make a lively acting play. The skill of the actors did much to make it succeed, but though they themselves grudge to own it, the comedians cannot claim all the merit of the success of a piece. The play of "Far from the Madding Crowd," which, after a first appearance at Liverpool, was brought out in London at the Globe, had been much changed from the novel, by both suppression and addition of characters. But the relationship was obvious, particularly in the dialogue. On the stage, though the play was fairly good, we must acknowledge that Mr. Hardy's creations appear to less advantage than in the novel. It would be a fine text for a critic of dramatic literature to show how the wayward and subtle character of Bathseba, which is made at least to appear natural by a thousand delicate touches in the novel, looked somewhat incoherent on the stage.

In the course of the year we have had two remarkable revivals of plays of our old dramatic literature. "The School for Scandal" was played at the Vaudeville by a really competent company, with a superfluity of magnificence in dress. At the Lyceum, Mr. Irving brought out "Romeo and Juliet" with a

magnificence in costume and furniture, and an intelligence in stage management, which render the performance noteworthy; but here, too, the acting fell below the level of the "getting-up." Mr. Irving was ill-advised in taking the part of Romeo, for which neither his training nor his qualities, good or bad, have fitted him. As much must be said of the Juliet of Miss Terry, which was a pleasant piece of acting, if we could forget she was acting a passionate girl. The performance was far less remarkable on account of the splendid fittings, on which so much stress has somewhat unworthily been laid, than for Mrs. Stirling's admirable acting of the Nurse. No such finished rendering of a character has been seen for long. It thoroughly justified those *laudatores temporis acti* who tell us that there is no such acting now as was seen in the days of their youth. Mrs. Stirling was one of many, now she stands alone. Except the plays and the acting which we have mentioned, we do not know that there has been anything seen on the stage in the past twelve months which is particularly worthy of notice in a review of the year's literature and art.

**Art.**—The artistic event of the year which first attracts our attention is the Watts' Exhibition at the Grosvenor. It was a happy idea to devote the winter exhibition at that well-known gallery to setting before the public the outcome of the life-work of a most able and original painter. Such exhibitions are not, indeed, new, but they have rarely been so complete. Mr. Watts' work was to be seen in every stage of his steady rise, from the children's portraits hung on the staircase, or the design for the Westminster competition, up to the "Love and Death," first exhibited very recently in this gallery.

The artist's canvases divide themselves into two classes; his portraits and his inventive pictures. Properly speaking, no doubt it is not possible to draw a hard and fast rule between them. In his portraits, Mr. Watts has striven to give far more than a mere clever mechanical copy of the man or woman before him—that is to say, these works are also inventive pictures, in so far as they draw upon the poetical faculty of the painter to interpret, and are therefore to be classed with the very greatest works of their class, the portraits of Velasquez and of Rafael. And Mr. Watts has been kindly treated by fortune in the matter of his models. Men of genius, such as Carlyle and John Stuart Mill; lesser, yet considerable men, of the calibre of Dr. Martineau; statesmen and soldiers like Lord Lawrence; and Mr. Burne Jones among his brother artists, to represent the more

delicate types, have sat to Mr. Watts. Beside them is a long series of graceful and well-bred women: models such as fate denied to Velasquez, and barely gave to Vandyck. There are weak points and even failures in the chain, but it is a noble one all the same.

Probably, it will be by his portraits that Mr. Watts will rank in the world of art; yet there is in his inventive work enough to give him a high place. He is less equal when drawing completely—as completely as the painter can—on his imagination; but if he falls lower at times, there are moments when he goes higher. The “Paolo and Francesca,” the “Daphne,” and the grave canvas we have already noticed, named “Love and Death,” may be fairly said to show him at his best. The last has been considered as that one among all his pictures which most completely displays all the qualities of his art—his mastery of form, his scientific knowledge of the mechanism of painting, used just far enough to produce a due effect, but never obtruding itself, and his perception of feeling. Exhibitions such as these deserve every encouragement. They bring within the reach of all those treasures of art which are too often condemned to be the joy, and to aid in the elevation, of the rich only.

While the Grosvenor Gallery was devoting itself to a modern master, the Academy was carrying out its design of bringing into view those works of the great men of the past, which abound in the private collections of this country, now the richest in the world. From the beginning of January to the middle of March, the thirteenth winter exhibition of the Old Masters was being held at Burlington House. Some of these exhibitions of recent years have contained finer pictures, and some of the canvases shown gave point to the wisdom of the Academy in refusing to accept any responsibility as to their authenticity. Yet, there was enough there to make a gallery of permanent value. Our own artists and the greater schools of Holland and Spain and Italy were all represented. There were specimens, too, of those French masters whose works are not common out of their own country. Going by order of rooms, the English painters come first. Romney was represented by thirteen pictures, which, almost as a matter of course, included one of Emma Hamilton, which again is as much as to say that one of the thirteen was very good. Whenever he was not painting that Mary Stuart of common life, Romney was apt to be lax in his drawing, and flashy in his colour. Love conquers all things, even the painter's want of taste and training. The picture exhibited this winter was a small full length, belonging to Canon Phillpotts, and in it Emma Hamilton sits with that



harmless instrument of music, a shepherd's pipe, in her hand, and turns a smiling face over her left shoulder. Four-and-twenty pictures represent Sir Joshua Reynolds—some of them in his character of chemist. The pigments have, in some cases, turned to colours which suggest nothing so much as the charnel-house pictures of Valdes Leal. Putting aside these canvases, which the Academy, doubtless, hung as illustrations of the vanity of human wishes, Sir Joshua is well represented. In gallery number three was his noble figure of "Fortitude," a symbolical picture, which we like all the better because the artist did not, as his successors are too fond of doing, go to Italy for his model. Sir Joshua's "Fortitude" is an English woman, tall, open faced, and stately. It is said that Lady Dudley and Ward sat to him for the picture, which was painted in 1779, and now belongs to Lord Normanton. The majority of his works in the galleries were, as a matter of course, portraits. Anybody who shares the general belief that the eighteenth century was a period of gross coarseness would have done well to go and look at them; they are a lesson in quiet dignity of manner. Gainsborough, whom Reynolds thought the first landscape painter in England, and whom Wilson, who had his own reasons for reserving the post of honour in that branch of art for somebody else, considered the first of portrait painters, was there to justify both his judges. In the first gallery were two excellent works of his—the portraits of his wife and of Sheridan—a beautiful woman and a man of genius. Only one of his landscapes—a woodland scene—was there to show him as the rival of Wilson. Of Wilson's pictures there were several—quite sufficient to show that Reynolds, at least, was not far wrong in his estimate of Gainsborough. Hogarth was represented by some portraits and a landscape, all good solid work, but not specimens of his highest art. There were several of Wilkie's genre pictures, and it is in them that he is always best seen.

The schools of the Low Countries and the Spaniards were the best represented of the foreigners. Just in the left-hand corner of the second gallery was "The Marriage Feast at Cana" of Jan Steen, which was in itself an education in art. It is almost needless to say that the figure of Christ was as bad as it could be, and that anything like religious sentiment was conspicuously absent. But what a picture it gives of human nature in its most earthly aspects! Every attitude, every gesture is absolutely true to life, and the faces tell each its history. The irreproachable honesty of the workmanship almost atones for what is coarse in the picture. It is eminently one of those things which called by another name would smell more sweet.

Three other pictures by the same painter showed the same qualities but in a less eminent degree. The Van Ostades—Adrian and Isaac—and many solid Hollanders besides could be judged by various genre pictures. Of the more striking if not the higher kinds of Dutch art there was a splendid specimen in Wouvermans' "Miseries of War," a picture which brought to mind passages from Defoe's "Cavalier," and some dreadful pages in Michelet's "Richelieu et la Fronde." A group of soldiers, with the stolid faces of men engaged in the merest matter of business, are driving a lot of unhappy peasants like cattle to slaughter. One has a young woman tied on the saddle behind him, and sits a picture of stolid brutal strength, regardless of her cries and struggles. A hamlet in the background is in flames, horsemen are galloping about, and on a knoll the mounted trumpeter is blowing his long tube to rally the pillagers. All the misery, brutalising violence, and crushing desolation of the Thirty Years' War are summed up in those twenty-three inches by thirty-two of painted canvas. The stately Flemish school sent five pictures by Vandyck and six by Rubens. Of the Vandycks the most striking was the picture of the Brothers John and Bernard Stuart, the sons of Esmé, Duke of Richmond and Lennox, pale, high-bred young men, with something of what Carlyle calls "a blackguard quality air." Both fell sword in hand, fighting for their kinsman, Charles I.—John at Clinton Down in 1644, and Bernard at Rawdon Heath in the following year. The most wonderful of the pictures of Rubens was the Earl of Normanton's "Young Lion." The beast is caught in one of those astounding contortions which only cubs still very much at ease in their skins can indulge in, and shows the painter's lightning rapidity of observation and iron tenacity of memory. The Spanish school was represented by a head of Philip IV., by Velasquez, perhaps doubtful, by three Murillos and two Alonso Canos, and a few of less value. Murillo's "Flight to Egypt" is one of those freely brushed pictures of Spanish peasants who bear the names of sacred characters, and there was a curious and interesting portrait of an old gentleman by Cano. Of the Italian pictures the one which was easiest to carry away in the memory was the portrait of the Cardinal Bernard Divizio da Bibbiena, ascribed to Rafael. The Cardinal turns a not handsome but intellectual face, with searching brown eyes, full out of the canvas. Another head, of a very different but almost equally striking kind, was the witchlike portrait of an old woman in a very witchlike peaked hat, topping a puckered yellow face, by Lucas Cranach. There was also a curious "Samson Destroying the Palace of the Philistines," signed by J. V. Player. It is

a small canvas full of light, and in almost sparkling colour, representing a Renaissance building in the act of toppling down on a crowd of rather too stalwart German men and women. The pictures we have named would by themselves make a rich gallery, and we have only named a very few of those exhibited. Surely when we remember that the collection represents only a thirteenth skimming of English private galleries we are well justified in considering them the richest in the world. One suggestion which has been made before we may venture to make again. Why should these exhibitions be confined to paintings? Sculpture is no doubt difficult to move, but with a little good will it could be done. And why should we not have a chance of seeing specimens of other artistic work, tapestry, embroidery, the wood-carving of Grinling Gibbons, and the chiselled plate of many goldsmiths? A single gallery devoted to these things would greatly add to the artistic value of the exhibition.

There was, almost as a matter of course, a considerable amount of assertion that the Academy was bad this year, was worse than ever, in short. It is some consolation for the R.A.'s that it always has been so from the beginning. Those of us who remember last year will be more inclined to see a marked improvement, and the great majority is always very well satisfied with the Academy, however it is. That is no doubt very wrong in the public, looking at the thing from the highest point of view, but this year it was certainly excusable. There were many works on the walls which will be a possession for ever, not only to the purchasers, but to all who looked at them with any attention. In the Academy, as in the Grosvenor, the best work of the year is to be found among the portraits and the landscapes, and, to make the resemblance more perfect, the best works of the former class are signed by Mr. Hubert Herkomer. He sends three, two of which cannot be forgotten by any one who has seen them. The portrait of Dr. Thompson, Master of Trinity, Cambridge, is one of those pictures which are a biography. He leans back in his chair with the conscious dignity of a man accustomed to be appealed to and to decide with authority. The likeness of Mr. Archibald Forbes is an equally fine piece of workmanship. The most illustrious of war correspondents stands with his hands clasped behind his back in the favourite attitude of Napoleon, and is dressed in a rough Norfolk jacket. There is, perhaps, too much overflowing philanthropy in the expression of the face which jars a little with the general rough-and-ready air of the canvas. Mr. John Collier's "Darwin" ranks as second only to Mr. Herkomer's portraits, and, some would say, not more than second. The popular Sir

Frederick Roberts, was twice painted in the Gallery, once by Mr. Ouleas, and once by Mr. Holl, and both times well; but the rough simplicity of the latter was, to our mind, more effective and more suited to the subject than the somewhat ostentatious trappings of the former. Mr. Millais sent several portraits, and that is equivalent to saying much good work; but he was not happy in his subjects, as a rule, and the painting of his faces, and particularly of the eyes, had a tendency to be almost as hard as metal. Of the regiment of portraits of a lady and portraits of a gentleman, the Academy was as full as usual. It would be an ungrateful, and even absurd, task to try and name all which deserve mention. In portraits of this kind, it is very common to find a respectable degree of merit, and nothing more, and there is very little use in trying to hand down the memory of respectable merit to posterity, which will certainly refuse to be interested in it. So many of these portraits are fairly good, that pages would be required for the mere names, and, as that makes it impossible to mention them all, we will avoid invidious distinctions, and abstain from naming any. There is, however, one exception which we cannot help making. In the third gallery, there was an extraordinary canvas by an American artist, Mr. J. S. Sargent. It was called "A Portrait," and was to be remembered for the startling way in which the artist had contrived to paint red on red, and yet not be crude. Mr. Sargent's name affords an opportunity for mentioning "El Jaleo," a large picture of Spanish life which he exhibited in a gallery in Bond Street. It was an excellent specimen of a style of painting little known among us; the kind of picture which is ugly and swaggering (no other word will do), but which atones for its faults by the astounding vitality of the figures and the technical skill of the workmanship.

Concerning the landscapes, there will be no difference of opinion as to which were the most striking; they were Mr. Brett's "Falling Barometer" and "The Grey of the Morning." Wet seaweed, shallow sea-water, driving clouds, and purple-grey haze were never better painted before, and one tone of colour never so painted. Perhaps Mr. Brett's canvases remind us a little too much of Martin's celestial landscapes, and certainly each reminds us far too much of the last of his own works we saw, but taken by themselves they are beautiful to the eye and suggestive to the imagination. Mr. Peter Graham sent a sea picture, "The Inflowing Tide," fully equal in workmanship to Mr. Brett's, and perhaps not the less true to nature for being of inferior beauty. Mr. Graham paints the dull white-grey sky of his own country. His picture is a faithful portrait of a piece of hard northern coast.

Another Scotch painter, Mr. M'Whirter, sent a wild Highland landscape, "The Tomb of Ossian;" and Mr. Colin Hunter another Highland scene of a quieter and less romantic character. The beautiful Thames scenery, which lies close at hand, and too much neglected by us, was illustrated by two pictures by Mr. Vicat Cole. They are parts of a series which is to illustrate the river from its source to its mouth, and which we should like to see obtained for the nation. Mr. Keeley Halswell was not happy in his contributions to the Academy this year; there was nothing to remind us of "The Back-water of the Thames" of last summer. Mr. B. W. Leader proved how much beauty can be shown to exist in a flat English landscape of tilled field and hedge-row by the picture which he christened by the title, "In the Evening there shall be Light." Mr. Waterlow's "Sheep-washing, East Sussex," was a perfect little ideal. Mr. Mark Fisher was represented by a canvas called "Sunlight and Shade," worthy of his solid good work in the Grosvenor. It is, like all his landscapes, a study of field and wood. Among sea pictures proper we may name Mr. Colin Hunter's "Homeward Bound," and Mr. Henry Moore's "Winter and Rough Weather." Mr. A. W. Hunt's "Sonning: about Mid-day" was not unworthy of Mr. Vicat Cole. "The Happy Valley," a woodland scene, by Mr. Frank Dalton, and "The Wounded Stag," a similar work, by C. E. Johnson, are pleasant English landscapes good to remember. Indeed, it was satisfactory to look at all the landscape work of this Academy. As a matter of course, there were weak spots in it, but as a rule it was good and thorough work. The artists had a definite aim, the desire to interpret, as the task should be carried out. They went to the peaceful, cultivated English country-side, and won from it its own peculiar beauty.

Of the inventive work of the year it is not possible to give an equally satisfactory account. In that, too, there was no want of good technical workmanship, but unfortunately the mere skill of the mechanism was more conspicuous than the poetic faculty of the artist. Mr. Val Prinsep's "Death of Siward the Strong" was an instance, and a conspicuous one, of what we mean. Mr. Prinsep's painting is always firm and intelligent, but those virtues alone were not sufficient for his subject. The story is well known. The Norse Earl of Northumberland not having attained, like his valiant son, to the honour of falling in battle, determined not to die the death of a cow, as he called it, in his bed. To avoid so ignominious an end, he caused himself to be equipped in his mail as he felt death coming on, and met it standing, with battle-axe in hand. It is not easy, scarcely indeed possible, for

the artist to tell such a story, and therefore Mr. Prinsep's choice of a subject was unhappy. But, apart from this, his group was singularly tame. Siward might have been surprised by a fit, from all one could see. A French painter would have probably avoided the subject, but if he had taken it his treatment of it would have been wild and striking. Unfortunately it is just in the quality of wildness that our painters are so commonly wanting, and they will select subjects in which it is indispensable. None of our painters has a finer imaginative faculty than Sir Frederick Leighton, but he has not been at his best this year. His much-discussed "Phryne" was not on the whole a success. Every time it was seen it pleased less. The drawing was faulty, the face somewhat vapid, and the colour had not the brilliant harmony his canvases usually show. Of the five other pictures exhibited by the President of the Academy, some displayed his great qualities as a colourist to far greater advantage. "Wedded" had a very fine scheme of rich colour, and the figures, particularly the woman who is bending back for a kiss, were at once natural and graceful. Mr. Walter T. Stacey's large picture of "King Edward VI. and his Whipping Boy" had the faults and the virtues of Mr. Val Prinsep's historical picture. It was one of those canvases of which the severest critic could not say that it was not well painted, and the most favourable that it was not just a little commonplace. The king and his scapegoat were excellently well drawn, but we could have wished there had been more pathos in both. Our painters of imaginative subjects are distinctly best when they only try to be humorous, or at least try mainly to be that. Mr. Stacey Marks' picture of "Lord Say before Jack Cade" has all the shrewd humour which he can express by means of birds as well as human figures. He has seldom succeeded better than in the two principal personages of this canvas. The calm, well-bred contempt of Lord Say, whose nerves are not to be shaken even by the prospect of immediate death, and the vulgar scolding of Cade are one as good as the other. The complete success with which he has attained a comparatively humble object makes his canvas far more truly a work of art than is Mr. Long's "Why tarry the Wheels of his Chariot?" The mother of Sisera is a noble figure certainly, but the slaves who surround her are a little commonplace, and one of them sins by being a mere repetition of a figure in one of his former pictures. Mr. Seymour Lucas's "The Favourite, 1566," is to be classed with Mr. Marks' "Cade." A knot of gentlemen are hanging about in a gallery ready to cringe to a supercilious upstart, whose face is marked by dissipation, and expresses

nothing but insolence. Anyone who can compare this picture with one of nearly the same title by the Spaniard Zamacois will see at once what critics mean when they say that our artists are tamer than the men of the French school, to which the foreign painter we have named, really belonged. Mr. Lucas is perhaps as good a workman as Zamacois, but his picture wants the indefinable dash and sparkle, which the latter owed quite as much to his training as to his genius. One work in the Academy, by an English artist, had, however, a very high degree of life and fire; this was Mr. Woodville's "Maiwand." This military picture might have been signed by M. de Neuville. Our countryman, who has seen war for himself, paints it as we feel it must indeed be—a scene of energetic, business-like struggle, where nobody has either time or inclination to pose and look like a hero. Mr. Linton's fine "Banquet," one of a series of six, illustrating the history of a soldier of the sixteenth century, also very adequately effects its purpose. It is a decorative picture, devoted to the splendid Italian life of the Renaissance. A stately party are feasting, in honour, we may suppose, of some victory, in a handsome court, and before them a lithe dancing-girl is bounding, with arms outstretched like the wings of a bird. Mr. Frank Dicksee's moon-lit "Love Story" is a fine picture, showing the influence of Mr. Leighton in a very marked way, but it is just a little too refined; it lacks force. Mr. Briton Riviere is in his usual place at the head of the animal painters. None of his pictures have shown more power of suggesting images, beyond what they show, than "The Magician's Doorway," a gloomy portal guarded by leopards. There is a more delicate feeling, and not less power, in the "Una with the Lion," also by him. Una herself is somewhat overpowered by the monstrous beast, but it is painted magnificently. Among the genre pictures none surpassed Mr. Carl Schloesser's "Out of Tune." A quaint old musician in an old-fashioned room is tuning a spinet with a solemn sense of the importance of his task. Mr. Lawson's pictures of "The Children of the Great City" have been seen and admired for long, and this year he shows us two of them drinking in the unwonted joys of the country. The face of the boy bears a most pathetic expression of wondering awe at the freshness and beauty which have come too late to save him.

We are conscious that our review of the Academy is, and must be, far from complete. Many names well deserving of honour must needs be left unmentioned, but we trust we have mentioned what stands out most prominently, and indicated the general tendencies of English art as shown by the exhi-

bition of this year. Our painters are seen in it to be pure in feeling, and laboriously honest in execution. Whatever the hand can do they do. In portrait and landscape they reach a high level, but in imaginative work they suffer from a want of poetic inspiration. How otherwise can we explain such a work as Mr. Collier's "*Clytemnestra*," coming from the painter of Mr. Darwin? In that strange canvas the workmanship is excellent. The stone pillars, the curtain, the accessories generally are what they should be, only the figure of the Queen fails hopelessly. Unfortunately, it is *Clytemnestra* alone who is of vital importance. A great character had to be indicated, and it is not there.

Of the works of art in the Grosvenor Gallery (if we leave out of sight the eccentric work of Mr. Burne Jones and his followers, which appeals only to the esoteric, and can be judged by none of the ordinary canons of criticism) by far the finest was Mr. Hubert Herkomer's noble portrait of Lorenz Herkomer. An old man in a workman's dress stands looking straight out of the canvas across a carpenter's work table. In his hands are the firmly-held mallet and chisel. The tools of his trade hang in order on the walls behind him. The head is singularly noble in shape, bald on the crown, but surrounded by a curtain of snowy white side locks and beard. There is no sham delicacy in the face: it is distinctly the face of the man who lives by the toil of his hands, not undirected by a shrewd brain and a well-trained eye. Whether the original is indeed a carpenter we do not know, but in Mr. Herkomer's portrait he looks worthy to be the enduring type of the honest toil which Diogenes Teufelsdröckh ranked as next in dignity to great thought. The execution of the picture is worthy of the fine poetic imagination which could interpret the soul and character of the model. Everything is painted enough and no more. Nothing equal to it is to be met out of the work of the very greatest masters. The three other portraits contributed by Mr. Herkomer have all the technical merits of this, but perhaps by the fault of the model they want something of the spirit. Going through the galleries by the mere order of the hanging the first picture met, which it would greatly profit anyone to remember, was Mr. Mark Fisher's charming and unpretentious "*Spring Time*," a perfectly honest rendering of fields and cattle. Near it stood just such another good piece of work, whereof the sea was the object, by H. Moore. If Mr. J. T. Netteship had given his picture a less catchpenny name, his "*Dirge in the Desert*" could have been looked at with more satisfaction. The lion who is roaring over his dying lioness is certainly worth seeing. Whoever has watched the king of beasts—at the



Zoological Gardens of course—stretch himself well out, firmly planted on his four paws, and pouting out his lips, utter the long rattling noise we call a roar, for want of a better word, while his flanks pant, will recognise the perfect truth of Mr. Nettleship's portrait; only why "dirge"? Mr. Keeley Halswelle has produced one of the best pieces of landscape of the year in his "Shooter's Hill, Pangbourne." Mr. Boughton sends a picture of a dull Dutch mole, on which a number of women are engaged in weeding the pavement; the sky, the water, the distances, and the figures, are all admirable. Mr. John Collier, than whom no man holds a higher rank among our younger portrait-painters, was but ill represented at the Grosvenor. There was a portrait of a lady by him which had all the signs of being a good likeness, but which had an undefinable air of vulgarity in the attitude. Of his head, called, for no apparent reason "Cassandra," it is unnecessary to speak. We have already said something of Mr. Collier as an inventive painter, in noticing his "Clytemnestra" in the Academy. Mr. Julian Story sent in an "Entombment," which looked as if it had been transferred from the Salon, so thoroughly French was it; and that is no small praise, for to paint a figure picture like a Frenchman is to do it with vigour of drawing and skill in composition. Four canvases of Mr. Alma-Tadema hung together in the West Gallery—three Roman subjects and a portrait of the admirable German actor Ludwig Barnay as Mark Antony. The latter was certainly a good likeness, and yet it seemed to fail a little in rendering all that Barnay had looked in his marvellous performance of that character. Of the three Roman subjects, one called, "Early Affections," was the best, and next to Hubert Herkomer's portrait of his namesake the finest picture in the Grosvenor. A Roman girl is dressing a child in the court of a house, with a background of poppies, sparkling like gems in a brilliant sun. The canvas is but 15 by 9 inches, and yet it has a vast depth and atmosphere. The colouring is worthy of the greatest of the Dutchmen. Every one who even passed through the gallery must remember Mr. Watts's "Cardinal Manning," but it is doubtful whether it will be with unmixed pleasure. The artist no doubt felt bound to paint the gaudy purple of His Eminence's dress as it looked, but we could have wished that Mr. Watts had had the artistic courage of the Greeks, and had sacrificed the vulgar truth of life to the higher truth of beauty. Mr. Millais sent two portraits, not in his best style, both being hard in outline and forbid-  
dingly rigid in pose.

It will be seen that the word *portrait* reappears in our notice with that iteration which Falstaff qualified by an adjective of shocking vigour. If it produces a certain monotony of sound in our fare, must the reader lay the fault on the artists. Taken as a whole, the portraits are not only the most numerous, but the most important of their works. Of genre pictures, we need only mention a very few. Mrs. Collier's "Rehearsal" was marked by a certain intelligent intention in the pose of the figures; but it was far too large, and inartistic in composition. Among the genre pictures which were what they ought to have been in size and execution, two deserved particular notice—"The Intermezzo," by Carl Schloesser, a music-master, kissing the hand of his lady pupil, who is more pleased than surprised, and Mr. Gregory's "Rehearsal," which has nothing in common with Mrs. Collier's but the name. A lady sits on a low arm-chair gazing forward; behind her is a tall gentleman in evening dress looking in the same direction. The reflection of some private theatricals in a mirror over their heads explains the title. The picture has all the cleverness of Mr. Gregory's work, but we would have dispensed with the vasty sweep forward of the lady's tempestuous petticoat, and still more with the aggressive magnitude of her feet.

The amateur work at the Grosvenor was more remarkable for quantity than quality, though there was some good landscape work of an unpretentious kind. One oil picture there was by an amateur which was not unworthy of a trained painter—namely, the portrait of a lady sent in by H.R.H. Princess Louise. It was certainly hard in outline, and a little stiff, but both drawing and colouring were good, and there was no sign of an attempt to do splashy or careless work under the excuse of amateurship.

A review of the artistic year would be incomplete without a reference to the Hamilton sale. Very rarely has the break up of a private gallery been such an event as this was. The vast prices fetched by many of the articles alone would make it remarkable. Six and nine thousand pounds for a cabinet seems to indicate a wonderful appreciation of art in the most practical manner. The end, too, of a famous private collection is a thing to be noted; but quite apart from other considerations, the nation has been permanently enriched by the sale. Some thirteen works bearing such famous names as those of Signorelli, Tintoretto, and Velasquez, have been added to the gallery in Trafalgar Square by wise and timely liberality. Most of the pictures have been already hung, some only temporarily, but some permanently. The nation has reason to be satisfied that its new wealth has been made available as soon as it has been gained.

## MUSIC OF THE YEAR.

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THE record of the musical events of the past year exhibits many noteworthy matters to those who delight in tracing events from causes, and to those who also see in those events causes which may lead to changes in the future. Whether those immediately interested in the promulgation of new ideas were altogether happy in their choice of a time for the execution of their plans is a matter which can only be discovered in the days yet to come. Some of the results are already manifest, and these can be pointed out in tracing the course of the season ending with the month of September in 1882.

The earliest undertaking of the season in point of time, and because of the prestige acquired during a long period of development, the most attractive for musicians, the Saturday Concerts at the Crystal Palace have during the past year maintained their well-earned reputation by the careful performance of old and the introduction of new works. The season has been, moreover, signalised by the presentation of a testimonial to Mr. August Manns from his friends and admirers, both in and out of the profession, in London as well as in Glasgow and Edinburgh, the three chief places in which his merits as a conductor and director have been displayed. The advantage of his intelligent, conscientious, and appreciative performance of music of all kinds, both native and foreign, during a period of a quarter of a century, was properly recognised by this testimonial; and his quiet, faithful, and unobtrusive services to the public in the cause of art were duly acknowledged.

It may be held to be a matter of regret that no novelties of importance were produced during the season which are likely to be of any value. The one piece by Berlioz which was performed was not a good example of his work. The Monday Popular Concerts, which were already in existence when Mr. Manns commenced his labours as a conductor, have this year been signalised by the re-appearance of Madame Schumann. Otherwise there has been nothing in the programmes or in the choice of executants to distinguish the concerts from among others which strive to emulate the level of placid respectability they have attained.

Joachim, Straus, Ries, Zerbini, and Piatti have been the mainstay of the string-performers. Their execution of the master works in chamber music of the great composers has been in all cases satisfactory, and, as might be expected, of uniform excellence. The chamber concerts of Mr. Charles Hallé were this year transferred to the Grosvenor Gallery, and the association of music and pictorial art was most pleasant.

The Royal Albert Hall Choral Society, under the able direction of Mr. Joseph Barnby, reproduced many of the standard oratorios with the customary success which attends well-rehearsed and carefully-performed works. The production by this famous body of the "*Damnation de Faust*," by Berlioz, during the course of the season, was an event not likely to be soon forgotten, inasmuch as the smoothness and accuracy of the performance of the choral parts and the care and spirit of the orchestral reading secured a highly-pleasing effect, in every way creditable to all concerned.

In the performances of the London Musical Society, also under the direction of Mr. Barnby, some interesting works were given, and some very clever singers and performers were brought forward. The chorus-singing in the choral works was marked by great refinement of tone and production, the result of assiduous and earnest practice. The like admirable effort it was which made the two concerts given by the "*Bach Choir*" so worthy in the annals of the year's music. At these interesting meetings Palestrina's *Missa Papæ Marcelli*, Bach's *Missa Brevis* in A, and three English anthems by Birde, Greene, and Ouseley, were presented in a fashion well calculated to produce a good impression.

To continue the record of the concerts of more or less importance, reference should be made to the three orchestral concerts given by Mr. Walter Macfarren at St. James's Hall in Regent Street. The programmes contained several of his own excellent compositions and those of his brother, the accomplished and learned head of the Royal Academy of Music, and the Professor of Music in the University of Cambridge. There was an admirable band, regulated with the greatest nicety to procure that satisfactory balance of tone necessary for a finished performance.

Prominent among other serial orchestral performances now established, the five concerts given by Mr. Wilhelm Ganz during the months of April, May, and June deserve an honoured place. The desire of the director seems to have been to secure a worthy recognition for the music of Hector Berlioz, Liszt, and other composers of what is called the "advanced school of music." The

large assemblies of interested listeners prove that his appeal is not in vain, and that there exists a large number of musicians and amateurs ever willing, like the Athenians of old, to hear "some new thing."

Less general in his design than Mr. Ganz, who welcomes all writers of the modern school, Mr. Walter Bache confines his missionary purpose to the enunciation of what he considers to be the truth in music as uttered by the Abbé Franz Liszt. Through evil report and good report he has faithfully adhered to his text, and through him the musical public has been enabled to know more of the compositions of Liszt, than by any other means.

While Mr. Bache has been able to secure a fair share of patronage and not a little admiration for his persistent courage exhibited on behalf of the hero of his musical predilections, and may perhaps point with pride to the support he has obtained, an institution depending, like Mr. Bache's scheme, chiefly upon the personal character of its director has been discontinued during the past year. This was the Musical Union founded in 1845 by John Ella, and, until a year ago, managed most skilfully by him. When, in consequence of age and failing sight he was compelled to retire from active work, Mr. Lasserre, well known in musical circles as an able performer on the violoncello, was appointed director; but early in the second season of his management he announced to the subscribers and the public, "that in consequence of circumstances beyond control" no concerts would be given except the Grand Matinée.

Other institutions of greater importance have been compelled to yield to this outward pressure, even though they seemed to be based upon conditions calculated to insure permanence. The old Sacred Harmonic Society has now to be numbered among defunct institutions. The concert which completed the fiftieth season also terminated its existence. It was founded in the year 1832 by a few earnest amateurs, who met at first for the practice of choral music, and afterwards, increasing in numbers and enthusiasm, turned their attention to the somewhat neglected works of Handel. They gave public performances from time to time in a hearty but humble fashion, and succeeded so well that they felt themselves called upon to enlarge their subscription list and to venture to give concerts in Exeter Hall, then newly built. The performances increased in importance, for it was found that their object was approved by public sympathy; the services of professional musicians were called into exercise conjointly with the amateur members. The operations of the Society were gradually extended; the interest of the public outside was more keenly excited, and when

Mr. Costa—now Sir Michael—was invited in 1846 to become the director and conductor of the Society, the concerts assumed proportions never before attained by any European body with a like purpose. The band was augmented, the choir strengthened, and the best of the professional singers of the time were proud to exercise their talents in the service of the Society. The Society grew rich and, to a certain extent, enlarged its operations. Higher terms were paid to artists than heretofore, and the Society had to live upon its accumulated capital, for public support was not given in proportion to the demands of the singers. In its worthy intention of encouraging young artists, the Society had, like Frankenstein, given life to a monster it could not control. The old home, Exeter Hall, changed hands, the Society changed its venue, but its occupation was gone, and on the completion of the period of half a century from its foundation, it expired. Some of the existing members are making an attempt to continue its operations under new guidance, but whether they will be successful remains to be seen.

Another institution, "The National Training School for Music," discontinued its operations in the early part of the past year. It was founded in 1877 in consequence of an appeal from the Royal Princes. Various towns, corporations, and private individuals furnished funds for the maintenance of scholarships for a term of five years. In the course of this time it was hoped that the School would attract a large number of paying students, and so become self-supporting. Mr. (now Sir Charles) Freaque presented the building for the purpose, and everything seemed in a fair way towards the attainment of success. The scheme was abandoned, very few of the towns, corporations, or private individuals offering to renew their support.

The Duke of Edinburgh, the Duke of Albany, and Prince Christian visited Manchester in December, 1881, and stated their views in favour of the foundation of a proposed Royal College of Music. A few months later the Prince of Wales called a meeting at St. James's Palace with a like object. The mayors of the chief towns of the kingdom, and many representative musicians, were invited to hear the addresses from the Prince and his brother, the Duke of Edinburgh, supported by the leaders of both Houses of Parliament, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Lord Mayor of London. It was stated that a capital sum of £300,000 was required to start the institution upon a proper basis. Dr. George Grove, sometime secretary to the Crystal Palace, was appointed organising director, and by the present time nearly £100,000 has been promised in support of the new school.

Here it may be mentioned that the authorities of the City of London have established a school for the purposes of musical education, "The Guildhall School of Music," as it is called, with Mr. H. Weist Hill as director, and a large staff of competent professors, which is doing excellent work, and is almost entirely self-supporting.

The cause of music is further served by the institution of examinations, not only in London but in the provinces, by delegates of the Royal Academy, the Society of Arts, Trinity College, London, and other bodies. It has been said that the present age is moved by a craze for examinations, but it is certain that the results are so far satisfactory, inasmuch as they tend to show that knowledge and skill are acquired in a manner which is creditable, even if it be not altogether so satisfactory in the present.

One of the causes of the great success attained by Mr. Carl Rosa in his performances of opera in English at Her Majesty's Theatre, may be traced to the convenient means at hand for bringing audiences at a cheap and easy rate from the various parts of London. Night after night, so long as his season lasted, was the house filled in the cheaper portions by those who fully appreciated the charms of such music as was presented. The more expensive seats in the theatre were not so eagerly sought after as Mr. Carl Rosa and others expected, and the venture was what is called an "artistic success," for the reason, perhaps, that the public did not crown the success of the artists by numerous attendances. "The Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin" of Wagner, exceedingly well placed upon the stage, failed to bring sufficient money into the theatre to repay the cost of the *mise en scène*.

It was assumed that the announcement of a series of Wagner's "cycles" in the same theatre had induced those who admire Wagner's music to reserve themselves for the more important venture, and for a time neglect the claims of art when conveyed through the medium of native speech. This did not adequately provide the whole reason for the neglect of the venture. It was felt that the programmes offered no inducement to the English people to be present. When the favourite operas of the English school were announced, the theatre was full. Reasoning from this fact, Mr. Rosa brought out an opera by Balfe for the first time in English, under the title of "Moro." It was originally written in 1856 for Trieste, and produced successfully. The first performance of this work in English was most enthusiastically received, and when it was played in the provinces during the tour of the company was everywhere received with favour.

The "cycle" alluded to above was the name given to a

series of four musical dramas by Wagner, representing four different developments of a mythical story—"The Nibelung's Ring." The first, the "Rhinegold," relates how that the gold of the Rhine was stolen, and fashioned into a ring, which gives the possessor magical powers. When the maker and first possessor is deprived of it by artifice, he lays a curse upon the ring, so that whosoever wears it shall die a violent death. The second drama, "Die Walkyrie," shows the death of Siegmund, and the grief of Sieglinde, his sister. The third sets forth how that Siegfried, "the blossom of the Wolsung's blood," who inherits the ring, is slain treacherously by Hagen, the son of the maker of the ring. The fourth drama, "The Dusk of the Gods" (*Götterdämmerung*), details the decay of the mythical deities, the restoration of the gold to the Rhine, the removal of the curse, and the triumph of disinterested love. The libretto—as the book of words is called—is the invention of the composer of the music, and as, in the *dramatis personæ*, the names and actions of the old heroes celebrated in the famous mediæval German poem, "Nibelungen Lied," might be considered to have a special effect upon the Teutonic mind, some degree of success was expected in England. But the names were names only in this country to the majority of the people. The music is constructed upon a plan which gives prominence to recitative above detached melody, and treats the human voice as belonging to the list of orchestral instruments. This did not commend itself to English people. Moreover, the charges for seats was in a great measure prohibitory. The speculators had mistaken the whole matter. It was assumed that the interest in Wagner's music in general, and in the "Festival Stage Play"—originally given at Bayreuth in 1876—in particular, would be sufficiently strong to attract a continued stream of delighted admirers. The fact that the whole play would take five successive nights in performance was in a great measure deterrent. The design did not commend itself to English minds. Moreover, the execution was of an inferior character. Some of the principal vocalists were very good, others were only passable. The scenery, brought from Germany, though characteristic, was not very much better than that exhibited at the London theatres of the ordinary type. The appointments—armour, plate, &c., lent by the King of Bavaria—were splendid. The band was rough and ill-trained, making up in vigour what was lacking in refinement. Besides all this, the language was strange to English ears, and, in fact, the diction was so pedantic as to puzzle even Germans at times. The music had none of the charms looked for in music.



Another German opera company, working at Drury Lane Theatre, was more successful in its design and more pleasing in its results. It is true that Wagner's operas were the chief works offered, but those selected were, for the most part, such as are constructed more in conformity with the accepted ideas on the subject. "Lohengrin," "Tannhäuser," "Der Meistersinger," were more successful than the "Tristan and Isolde," which reproduces all the peculiarities of Wagner's genius, held by many to be objectionable. Weber's "Euryanthe," and Beethoven's "Fidelio," were also included in the series, and the English public had the opportunity of hearing these masterpieces of art in their original tongue. The artists—mostly from Hamburg—were competent, some even attaining a degree which may be deemed excellent. The band, selected from among the ranks of the best English musicians, was directed by Herr Richter of Vienna. He delighted the connoisseurs by his excellent interpretations of the several works produced, and also made a distinct mark by the admirable performances of classical orchestral compositions given at St. James's Hall under his direction with the same orchestra which he had under his rule at Drury Lane. These concerts, called after the name of the conductor, were established some two years before, and had deservedly attained a high reputation. Neither of these ventures was successful financially. The enormous expenses connected with the enterprise were not met by a corresponding public support. The "adventurers," Messrs. Franke and Pollini, lost money by the theatrical speculation; and Mr. Franke became bankrupt in consequence of his losses in this and in the Richter Concerts, as they were called.

The Symphony Concerts (an offshoot of the Richter Concerts), directed by Mr. Charles Hallé, were undertaken with the intention of devoting the profits to the proposed Royal College of Music. The concerts were excellent, but were not largely attended, and so the Royal College benefited in a very small measure, if at all, by the performances.

There were many sets or series of orchestral concerts during the season, not the least important being those given by the old Philharmonic Society. The change in the dictatorship and mode of proceeding instituted the year before seems to have had a good result, and the Society, which for years had subsided into a secondary place in musical institutions, once more strives to take its proper place in the art world. A Philharmonic Choir was established, and with the help of this body, and the re-organised orchestra, a number of works hitherto unattainable, and, for the most part, looked upon with suspicion, were welcomed into the

*répertoire* of the Society. Liszt's "Dante" symphony, Rubinstein's oratorio "Paradise Lost," the "Romeo and Juliet" symphony of Berlioz, and some new compositions by Sgambati, and others of the "advanced school," were gladly heard because the conductor, Mr. W. G. Cusins, careful and conscientious in all his work, had taken care to produce them worthily.

The least satisfactory record of the past year is that shown by the position of Italian opera during the season. For this several reasons may be advanced. The chief, however, will be found in the "star system," as it is called—that is to say, a system of exalting the position of one singer (usually a female) above the rest by exhibiting her abilities in a form calculated to augment them at the expense of those by whom she is surrounded. This is in every way detrimental to art.

Operas have to be designed with a view to the exhibition of the powers of one artiste above all others. As the number of subjects available for dramatic plots is small, and as the interest of a play is proportionately lessened when one figure is made to occupy the chiefest attention, and when also the representative of the part prefers to exhibit her powers only in the one direction, which gives least trouble, and whose pursuit has been already proved to be acceptable, it will be readily understood that there is a great similarity in all the newly-written works for particular stars, how bright soever they may be. Where there is similarity there can be no advancement. There are too many works of one pattern, and, consequently, no progress is made.

This was the fault of the chief novelty of the season at the Royal Italian opera at Covent Garden Theatre—"Velleda," by a composer, Lerepven, this being his first essay in this line of work. It was written for Madame Adelina Patti, and as much of it as could be done well by her was heartily welcomed. The rest was as nothing—superb mounting, beautiful scenery, and dazzling costumes do not make an opera. Men said that it was simply a cento, or compilation of other men's works. This was true, but, for reasons already stated, this condition of things was perhaps necessary. It was a failure, and it deserved its fate. It was not written for art so much as for an artist. It was designed in the interest of the "star" system; it was but just that it should be crushed by the weight of its own machinery.

It should be added, before closing the reference to operatic doings at Covent Garden, that the prospectus was issued, not in the name of the director, Mr. Gye, but in that of the "Royal Italian Opera Company, Limited."

Among the welcome artists who appeared after a long absence,

the name of Madame Pauline Lucca deserves first mention, her performance in "Carmen" and in "Fra Diavolo" being, as of old, of the highest order of excellence. After the prospectus was issued, some advertisements in the public prints made known the fact that Madame Christine Nilsson had accepted an engagement to sing in Boito's opera "Mefistofele." This prospect was not realised; and Madame Trebelli, who actually sang at the beginning of the season, and whose valuable services, it was hoped, would have been continued throughout, disappeared before the season was half over.

The usual Promenade Concerts commenced in August, a week or two after the close of the opera season, and have enjoyed a fair measure of success. Mr. Gwyllym Crowe, the conductor, has given preference to English musicians in the list of his engagements, has expressed his determination not to encourage "royalty" songs, that is to say, ditties out of which the singer gets a profit by arrangement with the author or the publisher; and has set apart one portion of the programme of each Friday's concert for the performance of pieces selected by the audience in the form of a *plébiscite*.

It may not be out of place to include here a mention of a new Act of Parliament as regards musical publications. No person can recover penalties for the performance of a piece published since the passing of this Act, unless he has signified upon the face of the musical publication his desire to reserve his rights. This does not affect the publications issued before the passing of the Act, and it does not in any way cripple the acts of those legal buccaneers who sweep down and torture the unwary and defenceless sailors in dangerous musical waters.

English musical art was fairly recognised, both at the Birmingham and Hereford festivals, which took place in August and September. Madame Albani, it is true, is a Canadian, but as such is a British subject; Madame Trebelli is a Frenchwoman, long resident in England, and thoroughly English by sympathy; all the other artists—Mrs. Patey, Mr. Lloyd, Mr. Maas, Mr. Foley (Signor Foli), and Mr. Santley—are British by birth. The band were nearly all English players. The conductor, Sir Michael Costa, whom every one was glad to see in good health and vigour after a somewhat severe illness, is an Italian, but he has lived more than fifty years in this country.

By this it may be seen that English art is being honourably recognised throughout the land. At Hereford the whole band, the chief vocalists, and the conductor were English, and the performances were the best that have been given within the walls of the time-honoured edifice for many years past.

It should be said that at Birmingham a new oratorio, called "The Redemption," by M. Charles Gounod, was produced with much circumstance. The Birmingham Festival Committee paid the composer the large sum of £3,000 for the composition, and what with the sale of the right of publication and the demand for tickets to hear this work—it was performed twice within the festival week—they would more than repay themselves for the speculation. As a work of art it does not realise all the expectations formed of it. It is theatrical rather than religious, orchestral rather than vocal. There is nothing in the ideas which Gounod has not already said better in his other compositions, and, as "the work of his life," will not descend to posterity with so much favour as will be awarded to his immortal "Faust."

The performance of the work in London will, of course, be looked forward to with interest, and perhaps some attention may be drawn to other works brought out or revived at the two provincial festivals, Birmingham and Hereford, such as the "Abraham" of Molique, revived after a silence of twenty years. The production of these works on the occasions mentioned is interesting, as showing that even when the ostensible purpose is the augmentation of a fund for charitable objects, the claims of art are not totally ignored. It should, however, be borne in mind that these festivals are not undertaken for the cause of art alone, as so many worthy people are inclined to think and to say. Charity is the first, art is the second, consideration. If art alone were to have first consideration, the festivals would "cease and determine."

Still, the provinces always do more for the progress of music than London. Most of the new works, whether by English or foreign composers, are first heard in some country town, and then London yields, not to the claims of art so much as to the demand for novelty; and so, for all that may be urged on the subject to the contrary, these country festivals and other meetings have a distinct interest for the town musician.

In speaking of the prominence given to native practical art, it is gratifying to be able to state that honour is not withheld where it is justly due. The Dean of Westminster has given his consent to the erection of a tablet to the memory of Michael William Balfe in Westminster Abbey, in obedience to a request made at the instance of Mr. W. A. Barrett, and urged by the professors of music at the universities and the most influential members of the musical world. This is an honour which reflects upon all native musicians, and further marks the season as specially noteworthy in the history of art.

## RELIGIOUS HISTORY OF THE YEAR.

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To the Churches it has been a quiet and on the whole uneventful period. The national energies and sympathies which in times politically less stirring are aroused by controversies of faith or burning ecclesiastical questions, were during the past twelve months so deeply absorbed by the tragedies of Ireland, by the crisis and war in Egypt, and by the public discussion to which these gave rise, that the affairs of the religious bodies seem perhaps to claim less attention than usual. A great name has disappeared from the Church of England; Wesleyan Methodism has been shaken by the controversy on baptismal regeneration; but no book of an unusual character has appeared. No startling event has occurred. Yet the deep current of religious life has been flowing none the less vigorously. Nonconformists have been giving abundant evidence of zeal and vitality. In every society, school, parish, and cathedral, the ancient Church of the nation has been working with an ever-increasing energy.

Two Commissions of very considerable importance to the establishment have been sitting during the year, under the presidency of the Archbishop of Canterbury. It has long been felt by persons in authority, that ecclesiastical law and procedure have fallen into a hopeless state of confusion. Ecclesiastical law in former generations was in fact framed for those who wished to keep it, and who were desirous of obeying the constitutional authority of the bishop; deliberate conscientious evasion of its provisions was never contemplated. The whole Church, in truth, has long been ready for a codification or digest of the system by which it is governed, and for a simplification of its legal machinery. This feeling, however, was specially brought to a point by the scruple of the high Catholic party in recognising any existing court whatever. Frequent efforts were made to obtain from them a declaration of a tribunal to which they would submit without a sense of hardship; and at length, Archbishop Tait saw that it would be wise and generous to afford these doubts the opportunity of explaining themselves before a Royal Commission. Its result is not yet known; but the present state of abeyance of authority is clearly to all alike unsatisfactory and intolerable. The other

Commission has been at work on the statutes of the various Cathedral bodies throughout England. The Chapter of St. Paul's had already some years ago applied for power to reform its own statutes, and it had received legal sanction to the changes which it had enacted. In the case of most other Cathedrals, there remained many statutes no less obsolete than some of those at St. Paul's. In addition to this reason for revision, much has been written and spoken of late years about adapting the resources of these ancient foundations to modern expectations and needs. Each chapter has gone in turn before the commission, with what practical issue remains to be seen. One main result is a recommendation that in future no endowed canonry shall be held by the incumbent of a living above a certain fixed small amount in value. Against this proposed provision there seems to lie the objection that it will either deprive our large towns of some of their most useful clergy, or else prevent conspicuous men who still desire parochial work, from becoming ornaments, as so many of them are at present, to the cathedral bodies.

Beyond the two Commissions, little has been done in Parliament this year directly affecting the National Church. The Bill for legalising marriage with a deceased wife's sister was defeated in the House of Lords by so narrow a majority (4 in a house of 260) that it appears almost certain to pass ere long. Mr. Stanhope's Church Patronage Bill failed to make way amidst the wreck of larger measures. It was talked out. The evils against which it was directed are not imaginary. Most benefices have at some time in their history been indebted to one benefactor more than others for church, land, or income; and it was not thought unreasonable that such a benefactor and his heirs should have the right of nominating the incumbent for ever. The law has allowed this nomination to become a marketable commodity, either in the next presentation or in the perpetual advowson. Legal provisions against purchase for themselves by actual clergymen are easily avoided, but benefices in no inconsiderable proportion are yearly offered for sale. Hence the opponents of the National Church get an open ground for attack, and the public conscience is shocked.

The publication of the returns of the census of the metropolis for 1881 made the annual sermons and meetings on behalf of the Bishop of London's Fund in 1882 of the gravest importance. The bishop described the occasion as a crisis. The Diocese of London, after many changes of extent, is now exactly contained by the county of Middlesex. During the last ten years upwards of a million souls have been added to this area. As Bishop Jackson says, the work of providing spiritual instruction and accommoda-

tion has to begin over again. The idea with which the fund was started was mainly to build new churches where the population was already thick, and the parishes overgrown; but, during the last ten years, the chief part of this portentous increase has been in the suburbs. Great, indeed, is the success of the Fund already achieved. It has been at work twenty years. During that time Bishop Tait and Bishop Jackson have, by their annual appeals, raised £650,000. By means of the Fund, 142 new churches have been built, of which 129 are in London, 13 in Surrey. Numerous mission-rooms have been started. Two hundred and fifty clergymen have been added to the permanent working staff of the Diocese. Sixty-eight lay-agents have been appointed with definite posts and salaries. All this is much; but unless the suburbs, which are ever multiplying themselves anew, are to become heathen the efforts of the coming years must be greater than ever. The national religious sympathies for foreign countries have shown no lack of energy. The great annual meeting of the Church Missionary Society was, if possible, more notably enthusiastic than ever; its income was larger, its encouragements more striking. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, with its new constitution and its numerous colonial and missionary bishoprics, was no less vigorous. A further impulse was given to the work of evangelisation in India by an earnest meeting at the Jerusalem Chamber in the Deanery of Westminster, under the presidency of Bishop Lightfoot, of Durham, in support of the Cambridge University Mission to Delhi. That field of work is in many ways attractive, especially as it is guided by Bishop French, of Lahore, who lately received the medal of the Afghan campaign for his services to officers and soldiers during that war.

An event full of promise for the National Church was the establishment this year of the second of the four new sees proposed by Lord Beaconsfield's Administration in 1878 (41 and 42 Victoria, ch. 68). Two new bishoprics had been founded by the same statesman within the last few years; that of St. Albans in 1875 (completed in 1877), and that of Truro a little later. The other four were to be those of Liverpool, Newcastle, Southwell (for the counties of Derby and Nottingham), and Wakefield. One of the last official acts of Lord Beaconsfield was the nomination to the newly-constituted see of Liverpool. This year Mr. Gladstone had the satisfaction of filling the second on the list by submitting to her Majesty the name of the Rev. Ernest Roland Wilberforce, Canon Residentiary of Winchester Cathedral, son of Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop successively of Oxford and Winchester, and

grandson of William Wilberforce, the emancipator. Great good feeling had been shown in the north in the voluntary provision for the see. The fund was started by the splendid bequest of Mr. Hedley of nearly £20,000. Bishop Lightfoot, of Durham, besides a personal gift of £3,000, relinquished £1,000 a year of the revenues of that princely see, already greatly lessened from their former proportions. The Duke of Northumberland and Mr. Spencer contributed each £10,000. Mr. Joseph Pease, a munificent member of the Society of Friends, presented Benwell Tower, a fine residence near Newcastle, with several acres of land and other property. On Saturday, June 24, in the august cathedral which Durham and England owe to the genius of one of the Conqueror's bishops, Dr. E. Wilberforce the first Bishop of Newcastle was consecrated by Archbishop Thomson, of York, with great rejoicing, in the midst of a vast throng of laymen and clergy. The way for the heartier work of the ancient National Church amongst the crowded industries of the Tyne had been already prepared by the labours of Archdeacon Watkins, of Northumberland, under Bishop Lightfoot, and it is hoped that the eloquent son of an eloquent father will more than fulfil the auspices of that memorable day.

At the same hour, in the historic cathedral of St. Albans, the inheritor of another honoured name in modern English Church history was being consecrated as suffragan to Bishop Thomas Claughton. While his health in other respects remained strong, the eyesight of the Bishop of St. Albans was failing, and, by her Majesty's gracious permission, the Act of Henry VIII. was put into operation. Two names were sent in to the Queen by the bishop, and she chose that of the Venerable Alfred Blomfield, Archdeacon of Colchester. One of the eighteen towns which have the privilege of giving titles to bishops suffragan, according to that Act, happened to be within the diocese, and the son of Charles James Blomfield, the famous Bishop of London, became Bishop Suffragan of Colchester.

On Easter Day the foundation-stone of a new church for the English community in Rome was laid in the presence of the English Minister, Sir Augustus Paget, the funds having been chiefly collected by the energy of the late Mr. Richard Walpole. The establishment of this new church in the city of the Vatican is an important and interesting comment on the relations of English Churchmen with foreign communions.

The supply of clergy for the ministries of the various ecclesiastical bodies in England has not fallen off. To the National Church, statistics show that the two old Universities are supplying a little more than half the candidates for orders.



The strife of parties within the Church may be said, without insincerity, to show some sign of abatement. The Anglo-Catholic movement, as a protest against the principles of the Reformation, may not unreasonably be admitted by its adherents to have reached its highest mark. All new movements derive much of their impulse by novelty and by opposition; after a certain time there is very little left that is new to introduce; and then a new movement must depend, like those that have gone before it, on whatever of inherent vitality it possesses. The force of novelty is withdrawn; in an ecclesiastical crusade the revived ceremonies become as familiar as those which they superseded. The other sections of the Church had seen that variations in ornamentation and music had nothing in reality to do with one set of theological opinions more than another, but were subject to an entirely independent set of conditions. The churches and services of evangelicals have accordingly become, especially in the north, as rich in all the real elements of beauty as the most reverent arrangements of the Anglo-Catholic party. And thus a not inconsiderable element in the feud has passed away. The extreme wing of the Anglo-Catholics, meanwhile, unwilling as a party to remain inactive, has issued the programme of a "Catholic League," with the object of "completing the restoration of the Catholic privileges inherent in the Church of England," especially the use of incense and masses for the dead. And the Anglo-Catholics have had a cause of complaint which many members of the Church have sincerely regretted. The Rev. S. F. Green, Vicar of Miles Platting, has by his own refusal to recognise the authority of the existing church courts, remained in Lancaster Gaol. The imprisonment of a hardworking and conscientious parish clergyman was never contemplated. The Convocations have been doing their best to redress the grievance. The Archbishops of Canterbury and York passed a Bill through the House of Lords for the special purpose of meeting the case, which was lost in the Commons by a count-out. Meantime, no power on earth can persuade the unfortunate prisoner to submit to the jurisdiction of the laws of the realm, and by so doing (as it has been said) to unlock his door from the inside and recover his freedom.

The illness of the beloved and venerated Primate of all England has been watched with deep anxiety by all classes, of every shade of opinion. The calm sagacity, the manly frankness, the imperturbable good-humour, the statesmanlike view of the destinies of the English Church, the enormous personal influence, the unswerving adherence to the principles of the Reformation, in spite of great movements to right and left, the deep personal piety, the

unruffled patience and cheerfulness under repeated personal sorrows of no ordinary kind, the courageous devotion to duty in health greatly impaired, which have characterised the career of Dr. Tait, have won him the esteem and admiration even of those who differ most widely from his cautious and conservative policy.

The year will be remembered for the loss of the great and honoured name associated familiarly with the Anglo-Catholic revival. Edward Bouverie Pusey, nephew of the first Earl of Radnor, was born in 1800, and had, therefore, completed his eighty-second year. With John Keble and John Henry Newman in 1833 he became "one of the triumvirs destined to be a national force, and to give its real character to the Oxford movement." With whatever feelings the wide spread of this teaching in the National Church during the past fifty years may be regarded, the memory of the venerable professor of Hebrew at Oxford will always be affectionately cherished. His life was that of a recluse, and except through his writings and public influence, he was little known, even in his own university, outside the limits of his family, his friends, and his disciples. His commentaries are valued by all parties in the Church, and there is much in all his sermons which can be gratefully accepted by all Christians. As a theologian, he argued from premisses already conclusively settled in his own mind; the premisses themselves he did not labour to establish. While giving the protection of his name and influence to those of his followers who adopted the revived Anglo-Catholic ritual, for these developments himself he cared but little. In person he was not above middle height, inclining to stoutness. In later life his face was rather heavy, the cheeks tending to hang; the eyes small and keen, not often raised; eyebrows thick and grey; hair white; the expression of the mouth grave and gentle; the whole aspect of the face serious. He died on Saturday, September 16th, at Ascot Priory, Berks. He had been preceded in July by another famous leader of his school—Ward of the "Ideal of the Church," the most polemical of the writers of the "Tracts for the Times," a strongly original character, with a remarkable mixture of geniality and asceticism. Before his death he had long been a member of the Roman communion. The year saw the death also of Edward Steere, Bishop of Central Africa, the greatest of contemporary missionary prelates. He had an extraordinary gift for learning languages, and was famous for his scholarship, his self-abnegation, his heroic earnestness, and the sweetness of his temper. On April 6th died another well-known bishop—Frederick Barker, of Sydney, Metropolitan of Australia,

who had held his see for twenty-eight years. He was a man of gigantic stature, of the gentlest disposition, and, while an earnest adherent of what are called Low Church views, was a just and charitable ruler, and widely respected in the colony. On June 29th died James Craigie Robertson, Canon of Canterbury, the learned historian of the first fifteen hundred years of the Christian Church, whose works are in the hands of every candidate for orders. Another most useful servant has been lost to the Church in Prebendary Hugh G. Robinson, the principal author of most of the schemes for the reconstruction of endowed schools issued by the Charity Commission from Gwydyr House. Hugh Pearson, Canon of Windsor and Rector of Sonning, has quickly followed his life-long friend Arthur Stanley. His cultured mind, wide sympathies, and earnest benevolence, made him fit for high honours in the Church, and he was last year offered the Deanery of Westminster. But his love of retirement was genuine and unconquerable, and he preferred to devote himself to the interests of his parishioners. In Gerald Wellesley, Dean of Windsor, who died in September, the Queen was deprived of a tried counsellor and friend of unfailing sagacity and perception.

The Established Church in Scotland, framed according to the wish of the people themselves on the Presbyterian model, has seen this year that the campaign organised by a certain section of the Free Church for its disestablishment and disendowment, is so far not likely to be successful. The Free Church, founded in 1843, is based on two great principles:—(1) the independence of the Church in its spiritual action; (2) the non-intrusion of ministers, each congregation having the right to elect its own pastor, and the power of rejecting any one of whom it disapproves. In 1874 Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry removed the obnoxious Patronage Act of 1711, which was the principal cause of the disruption in 1843; but the Free Church still see a bar to reunion in the fact that the Established Church of Scotland cannot alter its formularies without the consent of the State. This fact does not vex the Church itself, because there is no wish that the formularies should be altered. Should the whole Church make up its mind for any alteration, there is complete confidence that the State would regard its wishes. The campaign against the Establishment is headed by Mr. Dick Peddie, M.P. for Kilmarnock district, by Principal Rainy and by Dr. Begg. It was thought that the cry would be enthusiastically taken up in the Highlands, where the Free Church is peculiarly strong; but the present year has proved that the emissaries of the movement have been, on the whole, ill received in the north, and that the majority of

the Free Church Presbyteries are opposed to the humiliation of the ancient sister Church. It was thought, also, that the cause would be taken up by the Liberal party; but the distinction between Liberal and Conservative in Scotland does not in the least correspond to the distinction between the adherents of the Free and the Established Church; and Liberal members of Parliament have been distinctly warned that they would lose their seats if they declared for Disestablishment. The movement is understood to be on the whole a Free Church ministers' question; the landlords who pay the small tithes which the Establishment possesses do not complain of so slight a burden, which in fact, as it has always been incidental to their properties, it is impossible for them to feel. Meanwhile, the Established Church population equals that of all the other Presbyterian bodies united, and is estimated at about half the whole population of Scotland. Like the National Church of England, the Establishment in Scotland is the home of a liberal and tolerant theology.

Next in importance to the National Church come the Wesleyan Methodists and their kindred associations. The Wesleyan Conference of 1881 had commissioned several select committees to do important work during the year, reports of which were brought in at the Conference of 1882, held at Leeds. (1) One had been engaged on the revision of the first and second Wesleyan catechisms, and was authorised to complete and publish its work with as little delay as possible. Of the eight members of this Committee, the principal were—Dr. Pope (Didsbury Theological College), secretary and editor; Dr. Osborn (President of the Conference, and Theological Tutor at Richmond College); Dr. Moulton (translator of Winer's New Testament Grammar, and member of the New Testament Revision Committee); Rev. B. Gregory (Connectional editor); and Dr. Rigg (Westminster College). The two catechisms replaced were prepared by Richard Watson in 1821. The new catechisms are said to be more strictly original, more purely Wesleyan, and containing much less of the Assembly's Shorter Catechism. They are believed to be the most elaborate and complete published by any Protestant community, and have been welcomed with great satisfaction by the "Connection." (2) To the same Committee, in the first instance, was entrusted the work of completing the revision of the Wesleyan service-books. All that remained to be done, from the labours of seven preceding years, was to revise finally the baptismal offices for children and grown persons. At the Liverpool Conference (1881) there had been considerable division of feeling as to the form for the baptism of

infants which had been prepared by the Committee of former years, some members of the Conference being desirous to retain phrases and clauses which the Revising Committee proposed to remove or alter, these clauses or phrases having been part of the prayer-book original of the Church of England, of which the Wesleyan offices were modifications. The Select Committee were instructed to submit any amendments they might propose on the forms as revised to the larger committee which had sat in former years. The ultimate recommendations of that larger committee were submitted to the Conference at Leeds, and, with the exception of the opening paragraph, were adopted by that Conference. Instead of the opening paragraph a new one was adopted, which departed still more widely from the prayer-book form than that which the committee had prepared. The baptismal offices, as thus amended, were approved and adopted in a large conference after a prolonged discussion by a vote of 266 to 134. One noticeable feature in the forms which have thus been sanctioned is the place given for the first time in the service for the baptism of infants to the parents and to the ideas of parental duty and influence. It is also to be remarked that the short petitions immediately preceding the act of baptism in the prayer-book are transposed so as to follow that act, a petition for parents being inserted among these. (3) Another subject of special importance was devolved by the Conference of 1881 on a committee which was instructed to meet during the year and report to the Conference of 1882. This was the creation and constitution of an affiliated South African Conference. This matter was entrusted to the general committee of the Wesleyan Missionary Society, which gave it into the hands of a special sub-committee. The constitution proposed was adopted by the Conference. It is in harmony with the provisions of the constitution of the English Conference as settled in 1878, but with special protection to the position and rights of coloured ministers and members. The Rev. John Walton was appointed first President of the new affiliated Conference, special legal powers under the provisions of John Wesley's Deed Poll being given him to enable him to call, create, and constitute the first Conference, which will meet early in the summer of 1883. (4) The Conference of Leeds assembled in its pastoral session on Tuesday, July 18th, the stationing committee having met to do its work a week earlier. The representative session sitting in strict continuance opened its business on Monday, July 31st. The legal hundred, which is the legal Conference, adopted and validated the proceedings of both sessions on Friday, August 4th. (5) The long and able dis-

cussions on the baptismal offices must make this Conference historically memorable. These took place in the pastoral session, and only ministers took part. A small committee was appointed to consider the title and form of publication of the new service book. This was done accordingly within a few weeks after the Conference; and in consequence two forms of service-book are published, one including the morning service, revised but not greatly varied from that in use in the Church of England, the other without this liturgical form. The other services included in the book besides the morning prayer and the sacramental offices are the burial and matrimonial services, almost identical with those of the Church of England; the form of ordination, also but little varied; and the Covenant services, as used in the Methodist societies at the beginning of the year. (6) During the last few years has taken place an almost entire financial reconstruction in Methodism. By reason of the large and rapid increase of the proportion of ministers to members, the former basis of connectional finance had been materially changed, and the various funds of Methodism had, for the most part, become more or less embarrassed. It was in order to meet this condition of things, to pay off the debt on the Foreign Missionary Society, and to provide funds for erecting a fourth theological college, that the Thanksgiving Fund was instituted in the year of Dr. Rigg's Presidency, 1878-79. That fund rose to the amount of £304,000, and afforded the means of relieving the Connection of its financial burdens; but, to secure perpetual exemption from embarrassment, it was necessary to make effectual changes in the administration of the funds. That work is now complete, with the exception of one department, that which relates to the maintenance and education of children of ministers. By reason of the principle of itinerancy, such maintenance and education has to be provided, for the most part, out of the common connectional fund. This problem remains to be solved, and a special Committee has the work now in hand. The report to the next Conference will be looked for not only with interest, but with anxiety. (7) The last twelvemonth was signalised by the largest increase in members that has been known for many years past. The return of members for Great Britain was 393,754. For Ireland, the increase was 238, and the number of members 24,475. The President of the Conference, elected at Leeds, is well known both as a revivalist and as a man of great and active beneficence. Few names are more familiar in Lancashire, or more influential among philanthropists of Liverpool and its neighbourhood, than that of Charles Garrett. The next Conference is to meet at Hull on Tuesday, July 24th, 1883.

The year 1882 is one of the years in which is being observed the Jubilee of the formation of the *Congregational Union* of England and Wales, which has for its objects the upholding and extension of evangelical religion, the strengthening of fraternal relations between churches of the Congregational order, and the maintenance of correspondence between Congregational Churches and other Christian communities. (1) The Jubilee efforts have been many; but, amongst them, is one which has just shaped itself. A generous Congregationalist proposed to give £1,000 per annum for five years for Congregational church extension in London, on the condition that £9,000 per annum in addition be raised; or £2,000 per annum for five years, on the condition that the corresponding sum be doubled. To realise this offer there has been a temporary combination of the London Congregational Chapel Building Society and the London Congregational Union, the united bodies calling themselves the London Congregational Church Extension Committee. It is hoped by their combined efforts to secure the promised benefaction. Throughout England and Wales there have been promises amounting to about £200,000, specially made in celebration of the Jubilee, to be spent on various institutions and propagandist undertakings. (2) The education of Congregational ministers has been a prominent question of the year. The standard of the Congregational colleges has been somewhat raised, whilst the *Senatus Academicus* of the Associated Colleges of England is doing its utmost to provide a thoroughly competent race of men for the Congregational pulpit. (3) The mission work of the London Missionary Society (which, while unsectarian in principle and action, is, nevertheless, almost entirely Congregational in its Directory) has this year, like the Church Missionary Society of the Establishment, been very successful. The Central African Mission has, however, suffered another great loss by the death of Dr. Sothern, an experienced traveller and devoted evangelist. As a deputation to visit their Indian and South African churches, the Directors have sent forth their Chairman, Mr. Albert Spicer, and their Foreign Secretary, the Rev. R. Wardlaw Thompson. (4) The Annual Meeting of the Congregational Union, held at Westminster Chapel, was more numerously attended than usual. The Chairman was the Rev. J. A. Macfayden, M.A., D.D., of Manchester.

From all the Churches alike, one movement stands specially out, as from its novelty and its proportions the subject of general comment and anxious discussion. The *Salvation Army* is already five years old, but it was in 1882 that it began more particularly to attract public attention. William Booth, a man of ardent

religious temperament, was at first an adherent of the National Church. Attracted, however, by spiritual life wherever he could find it, he passed for a time under the influence of the Wesleyans. Then a particular branch of that body, the New Connexion, engaged his sympathies. At length, in 1861, his great success in evangelistic work, and his habitual application of his powers to the simplest doctrines of salvation, inclined him to preach entirely as a free lance. In 1865 he was chiefly occupied in the wide and crowded districts of East London. He had marked success in open-air preaching in the Mile End Road. Not less remarkable are the gifts of his wife, Catherine Booth. "At first she laboured hard in the usual employments of a minister's wife; but constrained at last by inward promptings, she could no longer resist. Mrs. Booth has lived this life, in spite of much bodily weakness, for upwards of twenty-three years, speaking generally three or four times weekly, often for more than an hour, with a power over her audiences that must be felt to be understood."

In 1878 the growth of the body of those who had been converted by William and Catherine Booth and their friends justified the adoption of a new title; and as they did not propose to form a separate Church, but to attack the strongholds of vice and indifference, it would not have been easy to hit on a more distinctive name than "The Salvation Army." In this, as in many respects, the parallel between them and the Jesuits is very remarkable. Their stations are now 521, their officers paid and fully employed are 742, their services every week 4,950, their "soldiers" ready to speak, women as well as men, 15,000, the annual rental of their hired rooms £18,000. It must be remembered that these numbers, approximately true in the summer of 1882, must since have been considerably modified by rapid development. The leading features of the movement are easily sketched. The leaders of the Army are anxious to have it clearly understood that they do not wish to add another to the existing Churches, but only to convert the masses of those who have not yet been touched by religious principles. They confine their teaching solely to the letter of Scripture, paying little attention to current or traditional interpretations. They attribute less importance to the formulation of doctrine than to the demonstration of spiritual power. Their view of the relation of human nature to grace is shown by their classification "under sin, above sin, without sin." They admit that it is possible to fall from grace. They carry their military title and insignia throughout their whole organisation. Women with them are allowed to teach. Direct and public testimony is required from converts. They



justify vulgarity of address and excess of familiarity in holy things by the habits, ideas, and language of the classes they address. They occasionally administer the sacraments, but seem rather to allow the members of the Army to do what they please in the matter. Their converts may in fact join any church. They appear to like any countenance which may be given them by the Church of England, but their own work soon recalls their attention. The elements of their strength have been thus analysed. They succeed by reporting and publishing abroad every success they obtain. This of course is a great encouragement to their recruits. As soon as a convert declares himself, they give him immediate employment, even if it be only the distribution of their newspaper. They have adopted one of the secrets of the popularity of the Anglo-Catholics, by their abundant use of uniforms and banners. Their converts are required to go amongst their old comrades and give them personal evidence of the change that has taken place. They have great advantage in employing no language but that which is familiar to their audience, however homely, and even coarse. Lastly, their leaders have hitherto been persons of extraordinary power, of apostolical simplicity of faith, of transcendent boldness, of monastic self-denial, of the purest enthusiasm, and of vast capacities for rule and organisation. On the other hand, they have several sources of weakness. Their General, like the General of the Jesuits, is an autocrat far more absolute than the Pope; his unquestioned power is conveyed by trust-deeds to his successors. The lack of an intelligent basis of faith must in the end make itself felt. They seem to give the smallest possible place to private devotion. The irreverence which has already caused great scandal to educated observers, seems almost necessarily destined to increase, for its object is to be startling, and as novelty wears off it must cease to amaze. Lastly, as the Army has begun to acquire buildings and other property, with the attendant necessity of trust deeds, the tendency to settle down into a mere addition to the 176 registered sects in England and Wales can hardly be avoided. The Army has met with scandalous opposition; but if, on the one hand, the thoughtless and vicious have by wanton abuse, and sometimes by personal violence, repelled its campaigns, often injudiciously conducted, it has on the other received much substantial, if cautious, encouragement. A lively essay in its defence appeared in the organ of the High Churchman, *The Church Quarterly*. Cardinal Manning spoke kindly of it in *The Nineteenth Century*. Three remarks may be added. A danger must necessarily be incurred if, when the emotions of the unlettered have been stirred to the highest pitch,

young persons of both sexes, and of perhaps previously undisciplined lives, move about freely together. All great movements, particularly one drawn from such classes as the Salvation Army, will have a proportion of hypocritical followers. And there will be the fear lest any large number of the recruits of the Army may be on the short service system.

The theological literature of England was enriched by the appearance of the last two volumes of the New Testament portion of the Speaker's Commentary. These have been generally accepted as presenting, under the learned and indefatigable editorship of Canon Cook, the most complete orthodox English scholarship of the day. Dr. Westcott and Dr. Hort, Divinity Professors at Cambridge, brought out their new text of the Greek Testament. As it is in many respects very different from the received text from which the authorised version was translated, it has excited much discussion. The principle of Dr. Westcott and Dr. Hort is to go back to the oldest existing Greek Testament manuscript, written in capital letters, that of the Vatican, comparing it with the next oldest, that of Mount Sinai, and attributing perhaps to other manuscripts of the same character a decreasing importance in proportion to later date. The received text is mainly supported by a very ancient version or translation, called the Peschito-Syriac. The principle of Dr. Westcott and Dr. Hort has the support of most German Greek Testament scholars, the names of Lachmann and Tregelles included. The new text is largely that adopted by the Revision Committee as the basis of their translation, so the question is of some importance to the English public. The revised version has not been making much way except as a companion to the old. Its sale has been prodigious, but it seems unlikely that it will oust the version of King James from the services of the National Church. It has raised the question, "How did that version become authorised in the absence of any legal document to such effect?" And Lord Chancellor Selborne has given it as his opinion that it was by an Order in Council which must have perished at the burning of Whitehall Palace, when it is known that many important deeds of that period were destroyed. That it only came very gradually into use seems clear, for an examination of the writings of the theologians of the subsequent age shows that for quotation they used the older English translations indiscriminately. For scholarship, the new version is, no doubt, the most important that has ever been made of the writings of the New Testament.

## ATHLETICS OF THE YEAR.

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THE general practice of athletic exercises as a means of recreation is certainly a characteristic of our nation, and one of which we may be legitimately proud. Success in those pastimes which exhibit strength, agility, and presence of mind is popularly considered in England not less honourable to a young man than pre-eminence in intellectual pursuits. Hence it is thought necessary that a schoolboy should learn in his leisure hours to attain some skill in cricket, football, rowing, or running, and natural for him to continue while young and healthy the practice of the same pursuits while at college, or in the earlier years of his professional or business career. The movement which half a century ago was confined to the upper classes, has now spread all over the community, so that it is no exaggeration to say that three-fourths of the young men in England find one of their chief relaxations in severe bodily exercise of some description. The effect of this is somewhat remarkable. In every practice which is regarded with popular favour, and in which pre-eminence is honoured, some means is naturally introduced to decide the question of personal superiority, and hence we have throughout the year a great system of matches between crews, or teams, or single champions, representatives of schools, colleges, or clubs, to decide which side or man is the better. That these contests are a matter of interest to the community cannot be doubted for a moment by those who have seen the immense crowds which gather together to see the Oxford and Cambridge boat-race, Henley Regatta, or a cricket-match between England and Australia.

Another remarkable feature of the matter is the capacity for self-government which we show in sport no less than in other matters. Every school has its own officers, elected by common vote, to arrange matches and marshal the sides, and we see the whole country covered with a system of smaller and larger organisations which disseminate rules, select representatives, and decide disputes. In the course of a few days properly constituted officials are capable of rightly selecting the best eleven cricketers or foot-

ballers, or best eight oarsmen in the kingdom. Almost every sport is governed by a parliament of members, elected by the members of clubs who engage in that sport. The existence of bodies like the Amateur Athletic Association, Rugby Football Union, Amateur Rowing, Boxing, Swimming Associations, and the Bicycle Union, where important questions are decided and debates carried on with at least as much order as in the House of Commons, is certainly a characteristic feature of this athletic age.

Our own characteristic tastes are readily transferred to other countries which have been colonised by Englishmen, or are inhabited by those of English descent, and we see in many sports representatives from abroad returning to England to try conclusions with those of the old country. Last year we were visited by American athletes, who put to shame some of the best English runners and walkers, and this year has been rendered more interesting than usual through the visits of colonial and foreign cricketers and oarsmen. We have not much cause at present to lament any decline of English superiority, but it must not be forgotten that such defeats as we receive from America or Australia do but give another tribute to English strength and stamina, since those who defeat us are, as it were, our sons and pupils. The short record which follows should, however, show unmistakably, that the athletic capabilities of Englishmen are not on the wane.

**Cricket.**—The past season is one that will ever remain memorable in the annals of English cricket from the visit to our country of a team of cricketers undoubtedly the finest exponents of the game who have ever played together regularly in a cricket field. Beaten twice by Cambridge University, once by the Players of England, and once by the North of England, they defeated the Gentlemen of England, the English Eleven, and all the counties. Opinions are still divided as to whether England can pick an eleven as good as that of the Colonials, and perhaps it is wiser to say that there is little or nothing to choose between a picked English and picked Australian eleven. Certain it is that were an international match to be played again, the betting would undoubtedly be even. The doings of the Colonial Eleven and their successive opponents aroused an amount of interest, and even of excitement, such as we do not recollect to have seen paralleled in England. Every match in which the Colonials played were attended by vast crowds of spectators. Pitted against all the best elevens in the kingdom the history of their many successes and rare defeats can almost be called a history of the English cricket season of 1882.

Early in May the following thirteen Australian cricketers

arrived in England :—W. L. Murdoch (captain), H. H. Massie, A. C. Bannerman (professional), G. J. Bonnor, T. Horan, G. Giffen, J. M. Blackham, P. S. McDonnell, G. E. Palmer, T. W. Garrett, H. F. Boyle, S. P. Jones, and F. R. Spofforth. All were good bats, Murdoch and Massie being the most brilliant, and Bannerman the safest; Palmer, Spofforth, Garrett, and Boyle were all magnificent and untiring bowlers, and Blackham and Murdoch both splendid at the wicket. In the field few elevens have equalled and none surpassed them. Their first match, which was against Oxford University, at Oxford, on May 15th, was watched with the greatest interest and curiosity. Oxford had a strong batting team, but were weak in bowling. The Australians, however, it was thought, were likely to fail in the same quarter, in spite of the reputation made by Spofforth in previous years. Oxford made a good show with 189 runs in one innings, of which Mr. Shaw made 78 (not out), and 234 in their second innings (Mr. Whiting 55, Mr. Leslie 56). The feature of the match was, however, the batting of Mr. Massie for the Australians. In their first innings he made 206 out of the total of 362, and helped towards the total of 64 required in the second innings with a contribution of 46 (not out). The Australians won the match by nine wickets, but it was evident that their bowling was as yet inferior. Spofforth in particular did not prove at all dangerous. The second match, against Sussex, was naturally an easy win for the Colonials, but the fact of their making 643 in one innings (Murdoch 286, not out) began to create a panic among English cricketers. Their batting, it was thought, was invincible. The result of the next match, however, speedily changed men's opinions. This was at Twickenham, against a strong team of the Orleans Club. This eleven, like those of the M.C.C. and I. Zingari, although professing to be a club team, really represented an eleven which was but little inferior to those chosen for international matches. The same also can be said of the various United Elevens which met the Colonials. The result on this occasion was a draw, but it was evident that the Australians must have been beaten had the match been concluded. The scores were, Orleans Club, 271 (Mr. A. P. Lucas 87, not out); Australians, 75 and 240 for nine wickets. Palmer bowled best for the Australians, taking six of the wickets. Indeed, he was far the best bowler they had at the beginning of the season. The next two matches were equally unfavourable to the Australians. Although they beat Surrey, a weak county, by six wickets, they were behind in their first innings, and shortly afterwards, at the end of May, they met a defeat at the hands of Cambridge, who beat

them by six wickets. (Score—Australians, 139 and 291; Cambridge, 266 and 168 for four wickets—O. T. Studd 118 and 17, not out; J. E. K. Studd, 6 and 66; G. B. Studd, 42 and 48). After this it was fondly believed that the Australians' strength had been overrated, and although they beat Lancashire by four wickets, and played even draws with Yorkshire and Notts, but little doubt was felt that in their contest with the Gentlemen of England, fixed for June 26th-28th, they would meet with a decisive defeat. Just before this, however, they again met Yorkshire, and defeated them by six wickets, so that the great event of the 26th was watched by the public with an interest intense if confident. Every available spot at the Oval was crowded with spectators. The result, however, as will be seen from the appended score, was a severe blow to our national reputation for cricket. There was no doubt, however, that the Gentlemen would have done better had they played a fast bowler. Mr. A. H. Evans was originally selected, but as he was unable to play his place was filled by Mr. Ramsay, a slow bowler. The reasons for this proceeding were never quite apparent, as the success of Mr. Rotherham, at the Orleans Club, a few weeks previously, seemed to point him out as the best fast bowler among the amateurs. But still, when all allowance was made for error, it became evident that the Gentlemen of England had been ignominiously defeated. This was the more remarkable as the team of the Gentlemen included some of the very best batsmen of the day, and several whose reputation has hardly been surpassed. In fact, from a batting point of view, there was positively no "tail" to the eleven, as even Mr. Ramsay had on other occasions proved himself a very effective scorer.

## AUSTRALIANS.

Bannerman, c Hornby, b Steel	...	...	...	50
Mr. H. H. Massie, c Read, b Ramsay	...	...	...	32
Mr. W. L. Murdoch, c Grace, b C. T. Studd	...	...	...	57
Mr. P. S. M'Donnell, c G. B. Studd, b Ramsay	...	...	...	19
Mr. G. Giffen, 1 b w, b Grace	...	...	...	43
Mr. G. J. Bomor, c Lucas, b Ramsay	...	...	...	74
Mr. J. M'C. Blackham, c Lucas, b Grace	...	...	...	6
Mr. S. P. Jones, 1 b w, b Grace	...	...	...	4
Mr. G. E. Palmer, b Grace	...	...	...	8
Mr. T. W. Garrett, c Hornby, b Steel	...	...	...	26
Mr. F. R. Spofforth, not out	...	...	...	10
Byes, 3; 1-b, 2	...	...	...	5
Total	...	...	...	334

## GENTLEMEN.

1st Innings				2nd Innings.			
Mr. W. G. Grace, b Giffen	...	...	61	b Palmer	...	...	32
Mr. A. P. Lucas, b Spofforth	...	...	16	c Spofforth, b Giffen	...	...	2
Mr. W. H. Patterson, c Palmer, b Giffen	...	...	21	b Palmer	...	...	15
Mr. W. W. Read, b Giffen	...	...	17	c Jones, b Giffen	...	...	19
Mr. C. T. Studd, b Giffen	...	...	0	c and b Giffen	...	...	11
Mr. A. N. Hornby, c Bannerman, b Giffen	...	...	20	c and b Palmer	...	...	17
Mr. A. G. Steel, l b w, b Spofforth	...	...	12	not out	...	...	32
Mr. G. B. Studd, l b w, b Giffen	...	...	9	c Blackham, b Garrett	...	...	6
Mr. C. F. H. Leslie, not out	...	...	13	b Spofforth	...	...	10
Mr. E. F. S. Tylecote, b Giffen	...	...	0	c and b Palmer	...	...	1
Mr. R. C. Ramsay, c Jones, b Giffen	...	...	0	c Jones, b Garrett	...	...	0
Byes, 7; 1-b, 6	...	...	13	Byes, 4; 1-b, 2	...	...	6
Total	...	...	182	Total	...	...	151

When after this the Australians met a fairly strong United Eleven at Chichester, and defeated them by an innings and 263 runs, scoring in their one innings 501 runs, a cry was heard through the land that the prowess of England in the cricket field was gone for ever. In their next match of importance against Middlesex they again won by eight wickets, but it is probable that had the match been finished they would have met with a defeat on the following three days, when they met an eleven of the M.C.C. of almost national strength. For the M.C.C. Mr. Grace scored 46, Mr. Hornby 45, Mr. Lucas 45, and Mr. C. T. Studd 114, their total being 302, while the Australians in their first innings scored only 138. Their match against Leicestershire provoked another surprise. They were only able to beat that second-rate county by 74 runs, owing to the magnificent bowling of the professional, Parnham, who was as yet almost unknown to fame. After this they had a career of unbroken success until they met the Players of England at Kennington Oval on August 10th. Many expected to see the Englishmen win, but few expected to see the result which happened of the Players winning by an innings and 34 runs. The Players not only mastered the Australian bowling, but what was more satisfactory was that their success with the leather was not due to the phenomenal ability of one man alone, but attributable to the general bowling ability of four or five men. It must be admitted, however, that the large score which the Players themselves put together when it was their turn to go to the wicket, was due in great measure to the brilliant performance of the young Surrey professional, Maurice Read. We append the full score:—

## PLAYERS.

Shrewsbury, c Bonnor, b Palmer	...	...	...	...	6
Ulyett, c Bannerman, b Garrett	...	...	...	...	12
Barnes, b Bannerman	...	...	...	...	87
Bates, c Bannerman, b Garrett	...	...	...	...	0
E. Lockwood, b Palmer	...	...	...	...	3
Read, run out...	...	...	...	...	130
Flowers, b Boyle	...	...	...	...	25
Emmett, c Bonnor, b Garrett	...	...	...	...	21
Peate, c Boyle, b Bannerman	...	...	...	...	1
Sherwin, not out	...	...	...	...	10
Morley, c Bannerman, b Palmer	...	...	...	...	8
Byes, 7; 1 b, 11; n b, 1	...	...	...	...	19
Total	...	...	...	...	322

## AUSTRALIANS.

1st Innings.		2nd Innings.	
A. C. Bannerman, c Shrewsbury, b Peate	0	b Peate	14
H. H. Massie, c Sherwin, b Morley	0	c Barnes, b Peate	31
W. L. Murdoch, b Peate	35	c Lockwood, b Ulyett	15
P. S. M'Donnell, c Peate, b Ulyett	12	c Sherwin, b Ulyett	18
T. Horan, c Peate, b Morley	47	c Shrewsbury, b Morley	3
G. Giffen, c Shrewsbury, b Emmett	12	c Ulyett, b Morley	23
J. M'C. Blackham, b Morley	17	c Barnes, b Morley	1
G. J. Bonner, b Ulyett	9	c Sherwin, b Barnes	8
H. F. Boyle, run out	1	c Flowers, b Peate	0
T. W. Garrett, b Morley	0	not out	15
G. E. Palmer, not out	3	b Barnes...	0
Byes, 11; 1 b, 2; w, 1	14	Byes, 6; 1 b, 4	10
Total...	150	Total	138

At Derby they next met with another United Eleven, whom they would have beaten had they had sufficient time, but meeting at Portsmouth on August 17th a team of past and present Cambridge men, which included A. P. Lucas, A. G. Steel, Thornton, A. and E. Lyttelton, and G. B. and C. T. Studd, they were defeated again by twenty runs. Curiously enough, Cambridge have never been beaten by Australians, having once defeated the team of 1878 and twice the team of this year. They had no more first-class matches until they met the picked team of England at Kennington Oval on August 28th. The result of that match was a tremendous surprise. It was not so much a subject of surprise that England should have been beaten, but that she should have been beaten by so small a score, and have been beaten at the end, when the very smallest stand made by them must have secured them the victory. With five wickets left to make nineteen runs, they failed to do this, and lost by seven runs. The real cause of the Australian success may be set forth in a few words; a fast, straight bowler



on a treacherous wicket. The match was won for his country by Mr. Spofforth. In the first innings of England he took seven wickets, and in the second innings seven again, this time for 44 runs. Perhaps nervousness had something to do with the failure at the last of so many brilliant bats. Score—

AUSTRALIANS.					
1st Innings.			2nd Innings		
A. C. Bannerman, c Grace, b Peate	...	9	c Studd, b Barnes	...	13
H. H. Massie, b Ulyett	...	1	b Steel	...	55
W. L. Murdoch, b Peate	...	13	run out	...	29
G. J. Bonnor, b Barlow	...	1	b Ulyett	...	2
T. Horam, b Barlow	...	3	c Grace, b Peate	...	2
G. Giffen, b Peate	...	2	c Grace, b Peate	...	0
J. M. Blackham, c Grace, b Barlow	...	17	c Lyttelton, b Peate	...	7
T. W. Garrett, c Read, b Peate	...	10	not out	...	2
H. F. Boyle, b Barlow	...	2	b Steel	...	0
S. P. Jones, c Barnes, b Barlow	...	0	run out	...	6
F. R. Spofforth, not out	...	4	b Peate	...	0
Byes	...	1	Byes	...	6
Total	...	63	Total	...	122

ENGLAND.					
1st Innings.			2nd Innings.		
Barlow, c Bannerman, b Spofforth	...	11	b Spofforth	...	0
Mr. W. G. Grace, b Spofforth	...	4	c Bannerman, b Boyle	...	32
Ulyett, st Blackham, b Spofforth	...	26	c Blackham, b Spofforth	...	11
Mr. A. P. Lucas, c Blackham, b Boyle	...	9	b Spofforth	...	5
Hon. A. Lyttelton, c Blackham, b Spofforth	...	2	b Spofforth	...	12
Mr. C. T. Studd, b Spofforth	...	0	not out	...	0
Read, not out	...	19	b Spofforth	...	0
Barnes, b Boyle	...	5	c Murdoch, b Boyle	...	2
Mr. A. G. Steel, b Garrett	...	14	c and b Spofforth	...	0
Mr. A. N. Hornby, b Spofforth	...	2	b Spofforth	...	9
Peate, c Boyle, b Spofforth	...	0	b Boyle	...	2
Byes, 6; 1 b, 2; n b, 1	...	9	Byes, 3; n b, 1	...	4
Total	...	101	Total	...	77

From this time until the end of September they only met with one defeat from the North of England by ten wickets, but it was evident by this time that their batsmen were becoming stale. A United Eleven at Tunbridge Wells, owing to the bowling of Parnham, made an advantageous draw with them, and with the I. Zingari they only saved themselves by a tremendous score in their second innings. But during this part of the year their successes were principally due to the "demon" bowler, Mr. Spofforth, who was almost irresistible. In one match against eleven Gentlemen of Scotland he took seven wickets for eleven runs. During the

year they played 38 matches against first-class elevens, of which they won 23, drew 11, and lost 4, a truly magnificent result, when the uncertainties of cricket are recollected.

The long series of contests, however, between England and Australia is not yet concluded, but transferred to another scene. At the end of September an English team, captained by the Hon. Ivo Bligh, and containing a team of gentlemen and players of first class ability, sailed for Australia. It is doubtful whether their visit is well timed, for it cannot be denied that the system of international contests is somewhat overdone in these days. The excitement and party spirit which they create is not unlikely to end at no distant date in ill-feeling, as well as in the corruption of sport.

Of the uncertainty of cricket, and of the inability to judge of merit by comparative performance, another example is given by the result of the Gentlemen v. Players match which came off early in July. A few weeks before the Gentlemen had suffered a crushing defeat from the Australians; a few weeks afterwards the Players, as we know now, were to inflict on the Colonials a defeat even greater than that suffered by the Gentlemen; and yet the match resulted in a most decisive victory for the Gentlemen. The latter going first to the wickets, soon ran up a score of 377 runs. The largest scorers were A. P. Lucas (107), C. T. Studd (100), A. G. Steel (76). The Players when it came to their turn seemed quite unable to master the bowling of Messrs. Steel, Studd, and Morton, and were all out for 163. This obliged them to follow on, when they made a better show, and 287 runs were placed to their credit in their second innings. Of this Ulyett made 56, Barnes 52, Shrewsbury 47 (not out), and Bates 36. This left the Gentlemen 74 to win, and this number of runs they knocked up for the loss of two wickets. Their performance on this occasion makes their show against the Australians in June still more extraordinary.

From the matches played by the two universities with the Australians, and from their respective performances in other matches, it became tolerably evident that if public form were any index of success, Cambridge must defeat Oxford. For once this year a great match did not end in a surprise, and another proof was given evident that both in bowling and batting Oxford were the inferior team, and that their victory of last year was wholly due to Mr. Evans's exceptional bowling powers on a difficult wicket. From the score it will be seen that Cambridge won by seven wickets.

## OXFORD.

1st Innings.		2nd Innings	
Mr. E. D. Shaw, st Wright, b Ramsay ...	63	st Wright, b Ramsay ...	4
Mr. A. O. Whiting, b C. T. Studd ...	8	run out ...	38
Mr. C. F. H. Leslie, c Gaddum, by Smith ...	6	b Smith ...	31
Mr. J. G. Walker, b Smith ...	0	run out ...	6
Mr. W. A. Thornton, c Gaddum, b C. T. Studd ...	26	1 b w, b Gaddum ...	26
Mr. M. C. Kemp, c and b C. T. Studd ...	4	c and b Gaddum ...	82
Mr. E. Peake, b C. T. Studd ...	27	b Lacey ...	21
Mr. W. D. Hamilton, c Paravicini, b C. T. Studd ...	9	run out ...	0
Mr. N. McLachlan, c Ramsay, b C. T. Studd ...	2	b C. T. Studd ...	16
Mr. J. Patterson, not out ...	8	b C. T. Studd ...	3
Mr. G. E. Robinson, b C. T. Studd ...	2	not out ...	9
Byes, 8; 1 b, 2 ...	10	Byes, 10; 1 b, 11; w, 1 ...	22
Total... ..	165	Total ...	257

## CAMBRIDGE.

1st Innings.		2nd Innings.	
Mr. G. B. Studd, c Hamilton, b. Peake... ..	120	b Peake ...	5
Mr. J. E. K. Studd, b Peake ...	14	c McLachlan, b Peake... ..	30
Hon. M. B. Hawke, c Whiting, b Patterson ...	15	not out ...	39
Mr. F. E. Lacey, c McLachlan, b Peake ...	6	c Kemp, b Shaw ...	69
Mr. C. T. Studd, c Whiting, b Robinson ...	0	not out ...	1
Mr. C. W. Wright, b Robinson ...	17		
Mr. R. O. Ramsay, b Peake ...	8		
Mr. P. J. T. Henery, 1 b w, b Thornton ...	61		
Mr. P. J. de Paravicini, not out ...	9		
Mr. C. A. Smith, c Kemp, b Peake ...	14		
Mr. F. D. Gaddum, run out ...	0		
Byes, 8; 1 b, 3 ...	11	Bye, 1; 1 b, 3 ...	4
Total... ..	275	Total ...	148

It only remains to give a brief *resumé* of the county cricket of the season. The following table shows the relative success of each of the first-class counties:—

	Played.	Won.	Lost.	Drawn.
Lancashire ... ..	16	12	1	3
Notts ... ..	12	8	1	3
Yorkshire ... ..	16	9	5	2
Middlesex ... ..	11	5	5	1
Gloucestershire ... ..	11	3	6	2
Surrey ... ..	14	4	7	3
Sussex ... ..	12	3	8	1
Kent ... ..	9	2	6	1
Hants ... ..	4	2	2	0
Somerset ... ..	5	1	4	0
Derbyshire ... ..	6	1	5	0

It will thus be seen that Lancashire again ranks as champion county, although by its defeat early in the season in three of its extra matches, in those *versus* M.C.C., Cambridge, and the Australians, it seemed at first little likely to earn the honour. Notts were nearly as successful, Yorkshire also doing well, Middlesex, who at times put a magnificent team into the field, had very bad luck, and Surrey showed occasionally a great improvement. The feature of the season, however, has been the collapse of the county of the Graces. Great was the falling off shown in the record of Gloucestershire, and Mr. W. G. Grace himself failed to score a single "century." Lancashire was only beaten by one county, Notts, when they made 37 runs less than their opponents, but they defeated Middlesex and Yorkshire each once, and Gloucestershire and Surrey twice. Their captain, Mr. Hornby, was hardly in good form until the end of the season, when he again batted brilliantly and successfully. Barlow and Robinson, and Messrs. Royle, Steel, and Taylor, also batted strongly, while Mr. Steel, Barlow, Nash, and Crossland were most successful with the leather. A good deal of dissatisfaction was often expressed at the style of the last-named, who bowled very fast, with a peculiar action, which much resembled a throw. The umpires, however, were unanimous in permitting his bowling, and most of the strictures passed upon him were from the spectators, and not from the players. He helped much in the success of his county, and of the North of England, when they defeated the Australians. Notts once more rose into prominence now that dissensions between the executive and the Players, of which so much was heard last year, have happily passed away. Middlesex had a very strong team, which comprised the best amateur batsmen of the kingdom, the brothers Lyttelton, the Studds, I. D. Walker, Leslie, S. W. Scott, and others. Their best bowlers were Burton, the professional, and Mr. C. T. Studd, Mr. Tuke, a new acquisition, also proving of great service. Surrey numbers some good cricketers among its ranks, notably Messrs. A. P. Lucas, W. W. Read, W. H. Game, and M. Read, the professional. In the Gloucestershire team the two Graces and Midwinter and Woof were the only players who showed first-class form.

The year was remarkable for high scoring. As an example we may cite that of the Orleans Club when playing against Rickling Green. Messrs. Trevor and Vernon scored between them no less than 597, and the eleven were out for the unprecedented total of 920, or 145 more than what was previously the highest known score, that made by New South Wales last year against Victoria at Sydney. In first-class matches, too, high scores

were not infrequent. No less than four scores over 300, and twenty-one over 200 have been recorded. Messrs. C. T. Studd, E. F. S. Tylecote, and M. Read scored centuries against the Australians. Of the latter, Messrs. Massie, Murdoch, Horan, Bannerman, and Bonnor made centuries, the two former each scoring more than 200 in an innings. Nineteen scores of a 100 and over were made during the year in county matches, Shrewsbury scoring 207 for Notts against Surrey, and Lord Harris, Mr. E. M. Grace, Barnes, and Robinson each scoring 100 twice for their county. Messrs. Hornby, Greenfield, Foster, Lacey, Leslie, W. W. Read, S. W. Scott, Newham, Ulyett, and Midwinter were credited with a single performance each of a similar feat. It is probable that the visit of the Australians has done much to indicate the necessity of carefulness upon our cricketers, and to this as well as to the fine weather, and not solely to the deterioration of bowling, is the increase of scoring to be attributed.

The season generally may be described as the most remarkable known for many years. It has been one of miserable collapses, as well as of tremendous scoring. The truth is that when one is concerned with first-class play, no possible dependence can be placed on a score. The effectiveness of bowling depends so much on the wicket and the light, while a crack batsman, who may be dismissed for a "duck" before he is set, makes his century without trouble when once he is settled at the wicket. Messrs. Studd, Lucas, Grace, Read, Barnes, and Ulyett were all capable of making 100, more or less, against the Australians, and yet a team which composed them all could only score 78 together. The Australians, who could make 501 runs against one United Eleven, failed to make 50 against another. The better the cricket is the more one is tempted to say that nothing is certain, but the unexpected. One thing alone is certain, that the comparative failure of our cricketers is due to two causes, in both of which we can safely take a lesson from the Antipodeans. First, a neglect not of bowling generally, but of fast and straight bowling; and secondly, a want of scrupulous care at the beginning of an innings, which baffles the bowlers and makes the batsman well set at the wicket. If these lessons have been taught English cricketers, their defeat from the Australians will not have been in vain.

**Football.**—There is no doubt that both the games which are played under the name, although with widely different rules, are still increasing in popularity, especially in the metropolis and in the large towns of the Midlands, Lancashire and Yorkshire.

Football has this advantage, that it gives those who engage in it the maximum of exercise in the minimum of time, and hence we need not wonder that so many young men who are only able to spare from their vocations one half-holiday on the last day of the week take part in the very violent exertion which was once considered fit only for schoolboys, cadets, or undergraduates. Footballers were favoured during the season of 1881 and 1882 with extraordinarily fine and open weather, so that hardly a single important fixture during the six winter months which are devoted to the game had to be postponed or declared void owing to frost or rain. It will be sufficient for our purpose here to refer to the few leading matches played under the Rugby Union and Association Rules, which possess a national interest.

The match between the North and South of England was played early in December at Huddersfield. The game was evenly contested throughout the greater part of the match. Until half-time the South held a slight advantage, after which the balance of strength changed, but until ten minutes before the call of time it was uncertain which side, if either, would be victorious. Between this time and the conclusion of the match the North obtained a goal and a try. The South were superior to their opponents "forward," but were deficient in drop-kicking behind the scrimmage.

A match was played shortly afterwards between the North and Wales. In the previous year Wales had met England in an international match, but the result was such a crushing defeat for the Welshmen, that it was thought inadvisable to continue the fixture. The Welshmen, however, met a fairly strong team from the North, at Newport, in January, and were only just beaten, which made it evident that they were improving rapidly in their knowledge of the game. In the following month the Welshmen defeated the Irish team in Dublin, and although the Irish players by no means represented the best team that Ireland can produce, the victory is none the less creditable to the champions of Wales.

The international match between England and Ireland was played in Dublin in the early part of February, and ended in a draw, two tries being obtained by each side. The English forwards, although much heavier than their opponents, played sluggishly at times, and seemed to take matters too easily. The English backs, however, were most disappointing. The three three-quarter backs got in each other's way, and did not show to advantage. The play, however, of some of the Irish backs was excellent, Pike being the most brilliant performer, while the others were all safe. The English team was captained

by A. N. Hornby, who afterwards held a similar position in the great international cricket match with the Australians. Shortly after this an Irish fifteen visited Scotland and was beaten rather easily. They were, however, on this occasion poorly represented.

The most important event of the year, the International match with Scotland, was played at Manchester in March, and was won rather easily by Scotland by 2 tries to nothing. Wet weather had made the ground very heavy, and the English forwards, many of whom had speed as well as weight, were unable to do much upon the slippery grass. The Scotch team played with tremendous energy, although they did not dribble so much as in previous years. The English back play was also inferior to that of previous years, although Taylor was as good as ever, and Payne played most unselfishly.

It only remains to notice a few of the other important fixtures. The Oxford and Cambridge match was played in December at Blackheath, and resulted rather unexpectedly in a victory for Oxford by 2 goals and 1 try to 1 goal. The play was throughout loose and very fast, and Cambridge at first had the advantage, Don Wanchope securing a try for them, but the Light Blue team lost the match on account of the bad tackling of their forwards, who seemed quite unable to stop Evanson, who made some fine runs for Oxford sides.

There was the usual number of county matches, which, however, evoke little enthusiasm in London. Kent and Middlesex were about even in strength, Surrey being unable to cope successfully with either of them, although they made a good fight with Middlesex. The great northern match, Lancashire *v.* Yorkshire, produced as much excitement as ever, and ended in a level encounter. In the Midland Counties, Moseley, F. C., who had a fine forward team, and some good players at three-quarter back, carried everything before them, and won the Midland Challenge Cup. The Midland Counties Union sent some good teams into the field for county matches; they defeated Surrey, but were beaten by Lancashire and Yorkshire. The Challenge Cup ties in the latter county evoked great interest, although many of the leading clubs refrain from entering them in consequence of the wrangling and rough play which are indulged in. We must confess that we do not think challenge cup competitions tend to improve the Rugby game. The Yorkshire Cup was this year won by the Thornes Club. In London the strongest teams were Blackheath, Richmond, Queen's House, Marlborough Nomads, and Walthamstow. The match between the two former, which is usually considered the match for the championship of

London, was won by Blackheath by one try, the play being very even. It is probable, however, that Queen's House was the strongest club in London last season, in spite of their defeat by Blackheath. They have the immense advantage of always playing the same team. None of the London Hospitals had strong teams, although St. George's, Bartholomew's, and Guy's were fair. St. George's won the Inter-Hospital Challenge Cup after a close match with Bartholomew's.

*Association Rules.*—The Association game has been equally popular with the Rugby during last season, and has profited even more than the other by the fine weather, as the recognised season allotted to its practice is rather longer. The chief interest in this game always centres in the district, county, and national challenge cups. As the rules of the game give less opening to any disputing or roughness in the play, there is little likelihood of any deterioration appearing in it in consequence of the excitement and party feeling produced by challenge cup contests. But before we speak of the principal cup ties we must first allude to the North and South and International matches.

The North and South match, which is held with the view of assisting the choice of a national eleven, was a miserable failure. The members selected from the prominent northern clubs declined to desert their own clubs in the Cup Ties in which they were engaged, and consequently a poor team of Northerners was placed in the field, and it met with an easy defeat from the South.

The International Match took place at Glasgow in March, and ended in a victory for Scotland by five goals to one. The match was unsatisfactory, chiefly owing to the doubts as to the fairness of so many of the goals kicked by the Scotchmen. Three of the goals allowed to Scotland were awarded to them by the referee, there being a difference of opinion between the umpires. At best, however, had the decisions gone the other way, the Scotchmen must have won by one goal, if not more. The English defeat was not at all surprising. Their team is now drawn from so many clubs (chiefly provincial) playing different styles of game, that anything like the combination, which alone can secure victory under these rules, is impossible. The Scotch team, which is selected from a few leading clubs who all play the same game, is invariably better together. This year, seven of the eleven were from one club, Queen's Park.

In the match with Wales, played at Wrexham, the Englishmen met with another disappointment. The English team were, with one exception, the same as had figured against Scotland, and



they had the best of the game until the last few minutes, when the Welshmen put in some more goals, which enabled them to secure a win by four goals to three. It is unfortunate that the decisions in these cases were again the subjects of grave complaint.

The Association game is, however, always fertile in surprises. One of the greatest of the year was the defeat of Cambridge by Oxford. The former university was considered to have some of the best players in England, but of these several were on the sick list, and some other good players who formed part of the old Etonian team, who subsequently won the National Challenge Cup, were not selected, owing to *embarras de richesses*. The surprise of their defeat by a second-rate but dashing Oxford team was very great.

In spite of the crushing defeat of England by Scotland, the Glasgow and the Scotch Counties teams were defeated unexpectedly by the Sheffield and Birmingham Associations respectively. This should give a great impetus to the game in the two chief districts where the Association Game still retains greater popularity than that of the Rugby Union. Birmingham had rather the best of the draw in their match with London at the Oval, although the Southerners played one short for the last hour.

The competition for the Challenge Cup produced an enormous number of entries. The ties were played off in districts, to avoid the inconvenience of long journeys. The victory, in the Final Tie, of the Old Etonians over the Blackburn Rovers, was most unexpected. There was no doubt that the latter team was stale. Six months' constant play had made them deteriorate, and they played with none of the dash shown by Kinnaird, Macaulay, and the other Etonians, although in combined play they were perhaps superior. The following clubs have won the cup :—1872, Wanderers ; 1873, Wanderers ; 1874, Oxford ; 1875, Royal Engineers ; 1876, 1877, 1878, Wanderers ; 1879, Old Etonians ; 1880, Clapham Rovers ; 1881, Old Carthusians ; 1882, Old Etonians. The victory of the Etonians was a very popular one, owing to the air of professionalism which pervaded the Blackburn team, many of whom could scarcely be described as amateurs. Of the other preliminary contests, we give a list of those where the prominent clubs met each other.

FIRST ROUND : NORTH-WESTERN DIVISION.—Darwen beat Blackburn Olympic by 3 goals to 1 ; Queen's Park scratched to Accrington. MIDLAND DIVISION.—Aston Villa beat Notts Forest by 4 goals to 1 ; Wednesbury Strollers beat Stafford Road by 3 goals to 1. METROPOLITAN DISTRICT.—First Division : Great Marlow beat Brentwood by 3 goals to 1 ; Reading beat Hendon by 5 goals to 0 ; West End beat Remnants by 3 goals to 2 ;

Wanderers scratched to St. Bartholomew's Hospital. **Third Division:** Old Etonians beat Clapham Rovers by 1 goal to 0. **SECOND ROUND:** **NORTH-WESTERN DIVISION.**—Darwen beat Accrington by 3 goals to 1; Blackburn Rovers beat Bolton Wanderers by 6 goals to 2. **MIDLAND DIVISION.**—Nottingham beat Wednesbury Strollers by 11 goals to 1. **NORTHERN DIVISION.**—Heeley beat Sheffield by 4 goals to 1 at Sheffield. **Second Division:** Old Carthusians beat Barnes by 7 goals to 1; Old Foresters beat Pilgrims by 3 goals to 1. **Third Division:** Swifts beat Old Harrovians by 7 goals to 1. Aston Villa, Sheffield Wednesday, Royal Engineers, and Old Etonians drew byes. **THIRD ROUND:** **NORTH-WESTERN DIVISION.**—Darwen beat Turton by 4 goals to 2; Blackburn Rovers, a bye. **MIDLAND DIVISION.**—Aston Villa beat Nottingham by 4 goals to 1; Wednesbury Old Athletic a bye. **NORTHERN DIVISION.**—Wednesday beat Staveley by 5 goals to 1; Heeley a bye. **METROPOLITAN.**—**First Division:** Great Marlow beat Dreadnought by 2 goals to 1; Reading a bye. **Second Division:** Royal Engineers beat Old Carthusians by 2 goals to 0; Old Foresters a bye. **Third Division:** Old Etonians beat Swifts by 3 goals to 0; Maidenhead a bye. **Fourth Division:** Hotspur beat Reading Minster by 2 goals to 0; Upton Park a bye. **FOURTH ROUND:** **NORTH-WESTERN DIVISION.**—Blackburn Rovers beat Darwen by 5 goals to 1. **MIDLAND DIVISION.**—Wednesbury Old Athletic beat Aston Villa by 4 goals to 2. **NORTHERN DIVISION.**—Wednesday beat Heeley by 3 goals to 1. **METROPOLITAN.**—**First Division:** Reading scratched to Great Marlow. **Second Division:** Old Foresters beat Royal Engineers by 2 goals to 1. **Third Division:** Old Etonians beat Maidenhead by 6 goals to 3. **Fourth Division:** Upton Park beat Hotspur by 5 goals to 0. **FIFTH ROUND:** Blackburn Rovers beat Wednesbury Old Athletic by 3 goals to 1; Great Marlow beat Old Foresters by 1 goal to 0; Sheffield Wednesday beat Upton Park by 6 goals to 0; Old Etonians a bye. **SIXTH ROUND:** Old Etonians beat Great Marlow by 5 goals to 0; Blackburn Rovers beat Sheffield Wednesday by 5 goals to 1. **FINAL TIE:** Old Etonians beat Blackburn Rovers by 1 goal to 0.

The end of the season saw the formation of the London Football Association, which starts under good auspices with the evergreen captain of the Old Etonians, the Hon. A. F. Kinnaird, as President. A Challenge Cup competition is to be instituted, and matches will be played with Birmingham, Sheffield, and the combined Universities. They have also very sensibly introduced a rule forbidding any one to play in a tie who has received more than travelling expenses for playing. It is high time that a move was made in this direction in football circles. Of the other Associations and their Cup ties, we can do no more than give a list of the winning clubs. **Scottish Association:** Queen's Park; **Welsh Association:** Druids; **Sheffield Association:** Wednesday; **Birmingham:** Aston Villa; **Staffordshire:** Walsall Town; **Shropshire:** Oswestry; **Sheffield New Association:** Intake; **Berks and Bucks:** Swifts; **Norfolk:** Norfolk and Norwich; **West End (London):** Vulcans; **Edinburgh:** Hibernians.

**Rowing.**—The rowing season of 1882 has been a most interesting and eventful one, not only in the racing of our own

amateur crews and professional scullers, but owing to the visits in the spring of the professional, Edward Hanlan, who sculled two races on English water for the championship of the world, and in the summer of a four-oared crew of amateurs from America, who came over to try conclusions with the best amateur crews of Englishmen. Of the reception given to the last-named visitors, which provoked much criticism both here and from the other side of the Atlantic, we can speak later, after we have discussed the more important events which took place at an earlier period of the year.

The Oxford and Cambridge Boat Race provoked even more interest than usual this year, owing to the fact of Oxford having chosen an oarsman of very light weight (but little over 9 stone) to stroke a very powerful crew. It was strongly asserted by a good many competent critics that such a departure from the ordinary practice would inevitably be fatal to the success of the crew. These anticipations, however, were completely falsified by the event. The race was rowed on Saturday, April 1st, at 12.30 o'clock, the crowd lining the banks being even larger than usual, owing to the late hour. The following were the names and weights of the crews:—OXFORD—G. C. Bourne, 10 st. 13 lb. (bow); R. S. de Havilland, 11 st.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; G. S. Fort, 12 st.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; A. R. Paterson, 12 st. 12 lb.; R. S. Kindersley, 13 st.  $4\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; E. Buck, 12 st.; D. E. Brown, 12 st.; A. H. Higgins, 9 st. 1 lb. (stroke); R. H. Lyon, 7 st. 9 lb. (cox.). CAMBRIDGE—L. R. Jones, 11 st. 1 lb. (bow); A. M. Hutchinson, 12 st.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; J. C. Fellowes, 12 st. 7 lb.; P. W. Atkin, 12 st.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; E. Lambert, 11 st. 12 lb.; S. Fairbairn, 13 st.; C. W. Moore, 11 st. 7 lb.; S. P. Smith, 11 st. 1 lb. (stroke); P. L. Hunt, 7 st. 5 lb. (cox.). The race needs little description. Oxford took the lead from the first, and after the first mile drew right away from Cambridge, and won easily by four lengths. The Oxford stroke proved perfectly up to his work, and in no way destroyed the chance of his crew. On the other hand, it was very evident to those experienced in watermanship, that the Cambridge crew were rowing in a boat too small for them, and this mistake no doubt explains in a great measure the poor show made by so fine a lot of oarsmen.

Two days later, the long-talked-of match between the Canadian Hanlan and R. W. Boyd, our best English professional sculler, came off upon the Tyne. Although the betting was strongly upon Hanlan, Boyd also had many partisans. The result, however, was most disappointing to those who still love to hear of British supremacy in athletic sport. After the first quarter of a mile Hanlan had Boyd completely in hand, and won with ridiculous

ease, often stopping from time to time to wave his handkerchief to the spectators, and indulge in other exhibitions of bad taste. Later on in the season Hanlan rowed another match against Trickett the Australian over the Thames Championship course, and disposed of him in an equally easy fashion, after which the Canadian champion returned home, where he would have competed against Ross of New Brunswick had he not been suddenly stricken with an illness, which soon afterwards left him as inexplicably as it had seized him.

Early in May the races came off on the Thames for the valuable money prizes which are annually presented for competition by professional scullers by Messrs. W. M. and H. J. Chinnery. In the final heat of the senior race some discreditable proceedings took place. Perkins of Rotherhithe took a lead early in the race, which was over the Putney course, from his three opponents—Gibson of Putney, Godwin of Battersea, and Largan, a north countryman. Perkins utilised his lead by fouling first Godwin and then Largan. Gibson thus won with ease, and what would have been a fine race was spoiled. This result was most deplorable, and the whole affair was disappointing, none of the men being really good scullers.

The amateur racing season, as far as regattas were concerned, began late in the year, Henley, which always opens the racing, being fixed for July 6th and 7th. On both days there was a strong and gusty wind blowing almost straight down the course, but occasionally shifting a point or two, so that in some races the Berks, in others the Bucks, had the advantage, while throughout the regatta the holders of the middle station had no chance, if three boats were racing. The labour of rowing, too, was most severe, so that more often the race was to the strong than to the swift. In the Grand Challenge race for Eights Exeter College, Oxford (the head boat in the Oxford Summer Races), favoured by the sheltered (Bucks) station, beat in their heat London (centre), and Kingston (Berks). The latter boat was composed almost entirely of a scratch crew of past and present Cambridge oarsmen. In the final, Exeter being again favoured by the station, easily disposed of a Thames Rowing Club crew, and won the race. The winners were a strong and heavy crew, with a fine body swing. Although they had three men in the boat weighing over 13 stone, their stroke weighed less than 10 stone, another proof that a light stroke, if he has sufficient reach, is as good as a heavy one. For the Stewards (Fours) and Goblets (Pairs) there were only three entries in either case—London, Thames, and Hertford College, Oxford. While rowing down to the

stake boat, No. 3 in the Thames pair (the veteran W. H. Eyre) was taken ill, and the club had in consequence to scratch its crews for both events. Hertford in both cases defeated the London Rowing Club easily, though favoured by the station and by the absence of the Thames crews. That small college undoubtedly put upon the water the best four and pair of the season. The four was composed of D. Q. Roberts, E. Buck, D. E. Brown, J. Lowndes (stroke), Brown and Lowndes forming the champion pair. The Diamond Sculls fell again to the Hertford representative, Lowndes, for the sixth time. In the final heat his win, however, was fluky. He met Lein, of the Cercle Nautique, Paris, an oarsman of whose amateurism there is great doubt. After a desperate struggle against the strong head wind, Lein was leading by a length 100 yards from home, but here he fouled the bank, and Lowndes was enabled to win.

In the second class races there were numerous entries. The Wyfold Cup (Fours) was won by a strong crew from Jesus College, Cambridge (head of the river at that University), which averaged 12 stone per man. The Thames Cup (Eights) fell to the Royal Chester crew, who beat eight opponents, but were lucky enough to draw the best station on both days. The Ladies' Plate (eight oars for Colleges) fell to Eton for the first time for many years. In the final they met Radley, who, by the aid of the best station, had defeated First Trinity, Cambridge. The Visitors' (Fours) went to Brasenose College, Oxford, who beat Trinity Hall and First Trinity, Cambridge. The Public Schools Race was won easily by Magdalen College School, Oxford, who beat in the final Christ's Hospital, London, who had disposed of two Bedford Schools in the trial heat. On the whole, there is little doubt that in nearly every case the best crew won, but the bad weather and peculiarities of the course rendered the racing a great lottery. The most noticeable feature of the regatta was the failure of any metropolitan crew to win a race. All the first class races went to Oxford, and the others away from London. It need scarcely be said that the bad weather spoilt to a great extent the enjoyment of the large crowd of fashionable picnickers who patronise Henley.

At Marlow Regatta, on July 8th, there was no first-class racing. In the open four-oared races, for which the Hillsdale crew had entered, all the crack crews declined to compete, owing to a manifesto which had been issued a few days before at Henley by the Amateur Rowing Association. This Association was formed early in the year by the few leading clubs of the kingdom, viz., London, Thames, Kingston, and Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin

Universities, for the purpose of selecting crews for international events. In May the Hillsdale crew, who came over as the accredited representatives and at the expense of the National Rowing Association of America, arrived in England. They declined to enter at Henley, owing to the regulations in force at that regatta about foreign entries, viz., that they should be made three months beforehand. They entered, however, for the Metropolitan Regatta, upon May 7th, and their entry was refused, on the ground that there was a similar regulation to the Henley one in force at Putney. There was no doubt that this was so, but owing to the remissness of the secretary of that regatta the regulation was not printed with the others, and notice of it had never been sent to America. It was evident, therefore, that the Hillsdales had a legitimate grievance. This piece of injustice was, however, soon to be outdone by a greater one. One month after the Americans had arrived in England the Rowing Association met at Henley, and decided that no crew of the clubs composing the Association should be allowed to race against the Hillsdales, as the description given of themselves by the latter was vague. The Hillsdales were therefore to be suspended from competing until inquiries should have been made in America. The result of this manifesto was that the American crew was refused admittance to every regatta except those at Marlow and Barnes, where the committees had sufficient independence to be guided by their own opinion. In considering the conduct of the Rowing Association, it must not be forgotten that the Hillsdales' visit had been announced late in the autumn of the preceding year, that the Association was mainly got together in view of their visit, and that they had been a month in England before the Association thought fit to make inquiries. Were any inquiries needed, it was evident they should have been made long since. No answer naturally came to the letter of inquiry until a month later (August), when it was discovered that the Hillsdales were *bona fide* amateurs, and it became evident that the Rowing Association had made a great error. A match was then made between the Hillsdales and the Thames Rowing Club four who had won at the Metropolitan and other regattas. The unfortunate action of the Rowing Association has, we fear, embittered for many years the cordial relations which existed between American and English sportsmen.

At Kingston Regatta, on July 15th, the Thames Eight defeated the Kingston Eight, and the Thames Four (Tween, Hastie, Rust, and Canton) won the four-oared race with ease. The London Rowing Club was not represented in the senior races at this regatta, although

Grove of that club rowed over for the Senior sculls. The junior eights, which attracted eight entries, resulted in the victory of London, whose juniors had not been seen to the fore for several years. At the Metropolitan Regatta, London, Thames and Kingston met for the only time in the year, over a fair course, for the Champion Cup for eight oars. Kingston were outpaced from the first, and after a slashing race all the way, London defeated Thames by half a length through sheer strength. Thames, however, with their crack four, turned the tables on London in the four-oared race. Grove was again indulged in a row over for the Sculls, there being a great dearth of good scullers this year, Lowndes not appearing after Henley. The Metropolitan Junior Eight were won by London, who had the best junior crew of the year, R. H. Smith, the best junior sculler of the year, winning the Junior Sculls.

At the other regattas of the season there was little of interest. At Moulsey, Thames, by a third successive win in the Eights, carried off the Challenge Cup, R. H. Smith again securing the Junior Sculls, while Farrell of London won the Seniors from Grove on sufferance. At Reading, Thames won the Champion Eights, but by only a few feet, from a scratch London crew. In the provincial regattas, Burton and Worcester had the most successful fours, the latter winning the West of England Challenge Cup at Bath Regatta.

At Barnes, which is always the last high-class regatta, and which took place this year on July 29th, the only race of the season for junior-senior oarsmen (*i.e.*, for seniors who have never won a senior race) was won by the West London Eight. The principal race of the regatta for the Challenge Cup for four oars fell through. The Committee of the regatta accepted the Hillsdales' entry; and London and Thames, who had entered, declined to compete. On hearing of this, the Hillsdales withdrew also, and as the local club (East Sheen) declined to row, there was no race.

The race for the Wingfield Sculls, or Amateur Championship of the Thames, was, for reasons which have not yet transpired, postponed from July until August. The winner of last year, Lowndes, at the last moment withdrew, and the two challengers, A. Payne, of Moulsey Rowing Club, and Grove, of the London Rowing Club, met to decide the event in one heat. The race was rowed over the four miles of the Putney Championship course. Payne, although not a very speedy sculler, is a great stayer, as is proved by the fact of his winning from Lowndes in 1880; and this year he had no difficulty, after the first mile, in rowing away from Grove, and winning the trophy for the second time.

Early in August, a telegram was received from Yale College in America, stating that the Hillsdales were *bonâ fide* amateurs. The opposition of the Rowing Association being therefore withdrawn, a match was arranged between them and the Thames four, which had been most successful in the metropolitan regattas. This international contest, which formed a fitting termination to the season, was rowed on Friday, September 15th, over the Championship course from Putney to Mortlake. The following were the names and weights of the crews:—Hillsdale Rowing Club:—C. W. Terwilliger (steersman), bow, 10 st. 8 lb.; H. F. Mead, 10 st. 12 lb.; F. L. Beckhardt, 11 st. 4 lb.; C. B. Van Valkenburgh (stroke), 12 st. Thames Rowing Club:—H. B. Tween (bow), 10 st. 10 lb.; J. Hastie (steersman), 11 st. 2 lb.; H. Rust, 12 st.; F. Canton (stroke), 10 st. 12 lb.

The race was an exciting one, although rendered unpleasant by the unsportsmanlike tactics adopted by the Americans. Starting at a stroke of fifty to the minute, they took the lead, although rowing with an utter want of all good style, and commenced to bore the Thames crew out of the stream. The latter gave way several times, but were eventually compelled to foul them. Hillsdale got away with the lead, and by crossing and re-crossing, so as to give Thames the benefit of their backwash, retained it until the top of Chiswick Eyot, which is about three miles from the starting boat. Here the effect of their bucketing stroke became apparent, and the Thames four, who had been patiently rowing in perfect style a stroke of  $38\frac{1}{2}$  to the minute, spurted and drew up level, upon which the Americans ceased rowing for a time, although they continued afterwards when Thames had obtained a lead. Thames finished the complete distance in 20 min. 40 sec., 13 seconds in advance of their opponents. The Americans met with an accident to one of their slides before they stopped, but it evidently did not affect the result of the race. The result is most satisfactory in many ways to Englishmen, as it shows that the style carefully taught to all oarsmen in the old country in a race over a course of any great distance is sure to triumph over an inferior style, although backed by superior strength and practice.

**Athletic Sports.**—The athletic season of 1882 must be described as rather uninteresting in comparison with that of the preceding year, which saw the best athletes of America, Ireland, and Scotland competing together with our own best men in the English championship. This year there has been a large number of brilliant performances in the way of raising our



"records," and many distances have been covered in less time than had previously been known, but these results were solely due to one or two men, and there has been a great lack of exciting contests.

Early in March the Cross Country Championship was decided over the usual twelve miles of rough country, in the neighbourhood of Wimbledon Common. Not more than twelve members of each club are allowed to start, and that club wins the victory whose first six representatives make the smallest aggregate score when the numbers of the places in which they finish are added together. The entries included those of the two crack Midland Clubs, the Moseley and Birchfield Harriers. The most powerful London club pitted against them was the South London Harriers, but they were no match for either of the Birmingham teams. Moseley were declared the winners, Birchfield being second, and South London third. The first to complete the distance was W. G. George, of the Moseley Harriers, who, from his previous and subsequent performances, may fairly be described as the best amateur long distance runner ever known.

Only one thing of importance was done at the sports which are held at Oxford and Cambridge for the selection of the representatives to compete at Lillie Bridge. At Oxford, in the Half Mile Race, T. E. Wells, the young President of the O. U. A. C. completed the full distance in the time of 1 m. 57 $\frac{3}{4}$  sec. This stamps him at once as a veritable champion, and his subsequent performance in the Mile at Lillie Bridge shows that he is also first-rate at that distance. It was most unfortunate that his examination work at Oxford prevented his meeting George at the championship or appearing at all at that meeting.

The Inter-University Society Sports were held as usual on the day preceding the Boat Race, at Lillie Bridge, before the usual concourse of interested spectators, and after a close contest the honours of the odd event rested with Cambridge. The Weight Putting was won by A. M. Evanson (Oxford), with 35 ft. 11 in. Storey of Cambridge being second. In the Hundred Yards, Oxford scored another win, Carter of Oxford who was aided by a good start, just defeating Cave of Oxford in 10 $\frac{1}{4}$  sec. The Hurdle Race produced some very poor performers, the winner turning up in Des Graz of Cambridge, Don Wanchope (Cambridge), second. Time 17 $\frac{1}{4}$  sec. The Hammer Throwing was also won by Cambridge, Birley throwing 101 ft. 10 in. The throw was from a circle 30 ft. in diameter. In the Mile, the Oxford President Wells had an easy task, winning by 30 yards in 4 min. 30 $\frac{3}{4}$  sec., Eyre and Pratt, both of Oxford,

being second and third respectively. This was followed by a win for Cambridge in the Quarter, secured by Macaulay, who did the only first-class performance of the meeting. He won with ease in the grand time of  $50\frac{1}{2}$  sec., Payne of Oxford being second, Grace of Cambridge third, and Hughes of Oxford, of whom great things had been expected, being unplaced. This was the fifth win of Macaulay at these sports; he had twice previously won the Quarter and twice the High Jump. The latter event fell this year again to Cambridge, their winner being Colbourne, Hornby of Oxford being second. Oxford, however, retaliated by winning the Long Jump with Wood (21 ft.  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in.), Ware of Cambridge second. This brought the number of wins to "four all," and great interest was consequently manifested in the last event, the Three Miles. However, Hough, the Cambridge President, did not give his opponent a chance, and won easily in 15 min.  $27\frac{1}{2}$  sec., Hawker of Oxford being second, Hobson, the Oxford first string, giving up after two miles had been covered.

In the following week the Racquet Matches between the two Universities were played. In the Double-handed Game J. D. Cobbold and F. M. Lucas (Cambridge) beat C. H. F. Leslie and M. C. Kemp (Oxford). In the Single Game Leslie again met with an unexpected defeat from C. T. Studd, the Cantab. The Public Schools' Match ended in a victory for Eton, who met Harrow in the final tie. The winners were R. H. Pemberton and A. C. Richards, the latter showing exceptionally good form.

Between this time and the Championship Meeting, which is now held near the end of the running season, in the summer, there were not many noticeable events, and few new or promising runners appeared. Of the Londoners, W. P. Phillips, the 100-yards champion of the last two years, covered 120 yards in a handicap in  $11\frac{1}{2}$  sec., the best time on record. After this, he was naturally unopposed in his title to the Hundred Yards and a Quarter Mile Challenge Cups of the London Athletic Club, and he retained those trophies without a race. He also nearly secured the Three Hundred Yards Handicap Challenge Cup, winning it once from scratch in the fine time of 32 sec. Of the other Challenge Cups, G. E. Lidiard was indulged with a walk over for the Ten Miles, and Beckley retained without difficulty those for the Two and Seven Miles Walking Races. Chattaway was beaten in the Mile by H. D. Thomas, but he rather unexpectedly defeated, in the Half Mile, S. H. Baker, last year's champion at that distance. The latter, however, probably derived some consolation in securing permanently, a few weeks later, the

valuable Challenge Cup given by the Moseley Football Club for a Six Hundred Yards Race. At the various provincial gatherings of importance almost all the longer races, from half a mile upwards, fell to W. G. George, whose performances require a larger notice.

From the time when he secured first place in the Cross-Country Championship to the end of the season, this runner had one long triumphal progress throughout the whole of England and Ireland. Journeying from place to place, he succeeded in winning all the principal long-distance races at all the first-class gatherings throughout the kingdom. It will be sufficient to enumerate those feats of his where he succeeded in eclipsing previous records. At Birmingham, early in May, he completed ten miles, at the Sports of the Moseley Harriers, in 52 min. 56½ sec. Shortly afterwards, at the Civil Service Sports, in London, he won the Strangers' Mile Handicap, from the scratch mark, in the marvellous time of 4 min. 19½ sec., and after a few weeks again, at the Sports of the London Midland Athletic Club, at Stamford Bridge, he ran two miles in 9 min. 26 sec. He now is credited with having run every distance, from one mile to ten, faster than any other amateur.

The Championship Meeting was held at Stoke-on-Trent on July 1st, under the management of the Amateur Athletic Association. This is the third year in which the meeting has been managed by that competent and useful body, of which we shall say a few words below. According to the rules, the Championship gathering has to be held in London, the Midlands, and the North in rotation. This year the Northern Counties Committee selected Stoke-on-Trent as the most convenient spot, and a very successful meeting was held there. The presence of George in the long races naturally reduced the interest in those competitions, he being rightly considered a certain winner. In the Mile Race, his solitary opponent was Staniland of Lincoln, and George won easily in 4 min. 32½ sec. In the Four Miles he walked over. In the Ten Miles (which was held on July 3rd), he won by 750 yards in 54 min. 41 sec., W. J. Lawrence, Moseley Harriers, being second, and W. W. Alexander (Birchfield Harriers) third. In the Half-Mile, he again won with ease in 1 min. 58½ sec., there being no runner, in the absence of the Oxonian Wells, fit to compete with him. There was a good race for second place, which was eventually secured by T. A. Guinness, W. Lock being third. In the Two Miles Steeplechase George lost a shoe, and had to stop, and the race was won by T. Orellin of Liverpool by twenty-five yards, from W. J. Lawrence. The

Hundred Yards produced a fine race between Phillips, who won for the third time, and Cowie, who was again just beaten. Phillips at one time led by two yards, but was nearly run down by Cowie at the end. T. M. Malone, an Irishman, was much fancied, but after a poor start he did not show prominently in the race. The Quarter Mile produced the surprise of the day. There were three starters—Phillips, Ball, of the London Athletic Club, and Johnstone, of the Moseley Harriers. Ball dashed off with the lead at a tremendous pace, and never being headed, won in  $50\frac{1}{2}$  secs. Phillips, who went off in a lazy manner with inexplicable slowness, was nearly twenty yards behind Ball at half-way, but managed to get within six yards of him at the finish. Johnstone was second until fifty yards from home, when he was passed by Phillips, and gave up. This is the third year in succession that Phillips has won the One Hundred Yards, and been second in the Quarter. The One Hundred and Twenty Yards Hurdle Race was won on the post by S. Palmer, late of Cambridge, who just defeated F. J. Wood, of the London Athletic Club, in  $16\frac{1}{2}$  sec. Wood was equally unlucky in the High Jump, being defeated by one inch by R. F. Houghton, whose leap was 5 feet  $8\frac{1}{2}$  inches. The Long Jump was won easily by T. Malone with 21 feet  $9\frac{1}{2}$  inches, E. Horwood of Marlow being second with 21 feet 4 inches. T. Ray had little difficulty in disposing of his old opponent, E. A. Strachan, in the Pole Jump. In the Weight Putting, G. Ross of Patricroft did an extraordinary performance—42 feet 4 inches. This was within a few inches of the farthest “put” ever known. The Hammer Throwing fell to E. Baddeley, late of Cambridge, whose performance was 96 feet 4 inches, W. Lawrence, the old Oxonian, being second. It will thus be seen that although the sport was somewhat uninteresting, the performances of the winners were quite up to the average of previous years. The experiment of removing the Championship Meeting from London seems to have thoroughly succeeded in securing for it the entries of those who are recognised as the best men in every district, and the Championship under its present management has become one in reality as well as in name.

In the autumn George sailed for New York, to compete in November with Myers over the distances of Half, Three-Quarter, and One Mile.

It is impossible to conclude an account of this year's athletics without giving a word of praise to the Amateur Athletic Association for the good work it has succeeded in performing. This powerful body now numbers about seventy of the most important clubs in England, and it has so far succeeded by this time in

gaining respect for its action that every reputable meeting in England is now held under its rules. During the year the Committee have "suspended" or disqualified a considerable number of athletes who have been convicted of dishonest practices, and by these strong measures, and the moral effect produced by them, a great deal has been done to effect those purifications which athletic sport now so much needs. We hope to see the hands of the "Jockey Club" of athletic sport still further strengthened in future years.

**Bicycling.**—Racing on bicycles, now that the novelty of the pastime is over, is no longer so attractive to the sight-seeing public as it was some few years ago, but like every other species of hard exercise it has, despite its undoubted danger and liability to severe accidents, settled down into steady favour with the athletic class of the community. The chief feature to record of this year is the steady improvement in speed and endurance which the new inventions in machinery and the increased perseverance of the rider have rendered possible. A few years ago it was thought almost incredible that a mile should be covered in less than three minutes on a bicycle. Now such a feat is an ordinary one, and a rider has been found to complete the distance in more than a quarter of a minute less, and what is more, to cover twenty successive miles in less than twenty successive periods of three minutes.

Early in June a Birmingham rider, F. Moore, of the Warstone Bicycle Club, covered a mile in 2 min. 44 sec., the fastest mile known previously being two seconds slower than this. This performance, however, was eclipsed a few days later by that of H. L. Cortis, of the Wanderers' Bicycle Club. This gentleman, although an unbeaten champion in the year 1880, had not been seen on the path since then. He, however, soon showed that he was speedier than ever by covering a mile over the Crystal Palace track in 2 min. 43½ sec., and a few days later at Surbiton he improved upon this by covering the distance in 2 min. 41½ sec. A few weeks later he made an effort to ride two miles in less than 5 min. 36½ sec., the time which the Hon. I. Keith-Falconer was credited with some years ago, but in this he failed by a few seconds. Cortis did not enter for any of the championship races, but he showed in August that he was still to be considered the best bicyclist in England by twice covering twenty miles within the hour, once at the Crystal Palace just under the hour, and once again at Surbiton in 59 min. 20 sec. Shortly after performing these brilliant feats he deserted his athletic career for matrimony, and sailed for Australia with the

good wishes of his numerous friends. The return of Cortis to the path was quickly followed by that of another hero of bygone days, the Hon. Ion Keith-Falconer. To render himself fit for the approaching championships this gentleman undertook, and successfully accomplished, the prodigious feat of riding from the Land's End to John o' Groats, a distance of 994 miles, in very wet and windy weather, in forty-five minutes less than thirteen days. The Inter-University Bicycle Races were held at Cambridge on Saturday, May 6th, Cambridge being the winners. There were three races, at the distance of Two, Ten, and Twenty-five Miles. The Two Miles was won by Buckley of Oxford, the Ten Miles fell to J. S. Whatton (Camb.), the Twenty-five Miles was won by Day of Cambridge. Cambridge have now won the odd event at these races six times to three of Oxford.

The first pair of the Championship Races, those at One and Twenty-five Miles, were held under the management of the Bicycle Union at the Aston Grounds, Birmingham, on Saturday, July 8th. A large and representative entry was secured, and the meeting was most successful. In the first heat Whish of Birmingham beat Crute of Sutton, Palmer of Birmingham being unable to start, owing to an accident. In the second heat F. Moore beat M. J. Lowndes. In the final Moore, after a close race, just defeated Whish. Time 2 min. 47½ sec. Moore was also successful in the Twenty-five Miles, his most dangerous opponents, Jephson of Oxford, Day of Cambridge, and Lowndes, all meeting with accidents, either to themselves or their machines. Moore won in 1 hr. 23 min. 8½ sec., Crute of Sutton being second.

The race for the Five Mile Championship came off at the Crystal Palace track, on July 22. The preliminary heats were won by Jephson of Oxford, Crute, J. S. Whatton of Cambridge, and Keith-Falconer. The final was won by Whatton somewhat easily from Keith-Falconer in 15 min. 12¼ sec. The winner defeated in his heat W. K. Adam, whose performance soon afterwards at three miles was all the more unexpected. Starting with Mr. Cates in the first of his rides of 20 miles within the hour, Mr. Adam completed three miles in 8 min. 41¼ sec., an unprecedented time. The season closed with the long-distance championship (50 miles), which was won over the Crystal Palace track by Mr. Keith-Falconer in the time of 2 hrs. 43 min. 58½ sec. A good example of the rapid increase of pace, as well as power of endurance in bicycling, is shown by the fact that the first seven men in the race, viz, the winner, and Messrs. Vesey, Adam, Jephson, Day, Reynolds and Crute, all covered the distance in a shorter time than it had ever been done before the day of the race. Perhaps in a few

years the great bicycling feats of to-day will dwindle into insignificance compared with those of another and speedier generation.

Before quitting the subject we must call attention to the remarkable improvement in the manufacture and increased popularity of the tricycle. While giving little of the risk which attends the riding of a bicycle, the improved forms of three-wheeled velocipedes enable those of either sex and any age to travel great distances with little exertion or difficulty, while the "Sociables," or tricycles with seats for two, give opportunities for companionship which many have found attractive. That a good tricycle affords a means of locomotion little inferior to the bicycle is shown by the fact that Mr. Nixon, of the London Tricycle Club, covered the same journey as Mr. Keith-Falconer (994 miles) in five minutes less than fourteen days. Mr. Marriott of Coventry also covered 180 miles in a day on a tricycle, and Mr. Harkins 191 miles in a similar time. As it seems impossible in England to institute any pastime without holding a championship competition, a Fifty Miles Tricycle Championship Race was held on the road between Barnet and Hitchin, and was won by M. J. Lowndes (3 hrs. 47 min. 40 sec.), T. R. Marriott being second.

**Lawn Tennis.**—It is impossible to conclude a review of athletic sport in England without noticing the enormous and ever-increasing popularity of lawn tennis. Whenever in town or in country, in the home country or in the colonies, a level piece of grass or asphalt can be found, there are to be seen the familiar net and posts. When the original Sphairistike was introduced by Major Wingfield as a more exciting substitute for the effete croquet than Badminton, few could have conjectured that in a few years it would be played by hundreds of thousands, and that the best performers at the game would be known by name through the length and breadth of the land. In fact, the game owes its great attraction to various reasons; it not only gives an opportunity for the exercise of great skill and grace, but it also affords an excellent means to society, as it can be played with sufficient skill by both sexes, and gives an opportunity for healthy exercise to many whose years or lack of spare time render them unable to indulge in more severe exertions. Suffice it to say, that lawn tennis is now as much of a national game as cricket. Every neighbourhood has its club, and every club its competitions, in the form of single or double matches for ladies as well as gentlemen.

Of late years, the steady play with little "volleying" and careful placing of the ball, which was the game played by the late

champion, Mr. Hartley, has gone out of favour, and the practice of standing up to the net and "volleying" has become frequent. In order to check this in some degree, the height of the net at the side of the court was altered at the beginning of the season by the M.C.C. and All England L.T.C. from 4 ft. to 3 ft. 6 in. It cannot be said, however, that the change has done much to alter the prevalent style of play, and the most popular stroke among the best players is still a "smash" or volley of terrific force, which an opponent finds it almost impossible to return. A further change has been suggested in some quarters of reducing the net to an even height all across the court.

Scarcely a week passed between May and September without some open competition being played. In the Irish Championship, which took place in May, Mr. E. Renshaw defeated all the other entrants, and it fell to him to meet his brother, the champion of last year, but he retired and allowed his brother to become absolute possessor of the cup, which he had twice won previously. In the double-handed championship, however, the brothers E. and W. Renshaw were beaten by P. Aungier and E. de S. Browne, but they afterwards turned the tables on their opponents at Liverpool. There were a large number of open competitions after this throughout the kingdom, the most successful players in London besides the Renshaws being Messrs. Lawford and Woodhouse, and in the North, Messrs. Richardson and Hartley. After some successful tournaments at Stamford Bridge, Princes, and the Agricultural Hall, the championship meeting was held at Wimbledon, in the middle of July. We append a record of the results after the second round.

THIRD ROUND.—Mr. E. Renshaw beat Mr. H. Berkeley; Mr. H. F. Lawford beat Mr. H. W. Wilberforce; Mr. R. T. Richardson beat Mr. O. E. Woodhouse; Mr. T. Benson, a bye. FOURTH ROUND.—Mr. E. Renshaw beat Mr. H. F. Lawford; Mr. R. T. Richardson beat Mr. F. Benson. FINAL ROUND.—Mr. E. Renshaw beat Mr. R. T. Richardson.

Mr. E. Renshaw then played the holder, Mr. W. Renshaw, for the championship, and was defeated by him. During August there were tournaments at all the principal watering places, and the Scotch championship was won by Mr. J. G. Horn. We cannot help doubting whether the immense number of competitions does not tend to spoil the sport from a social point of view. They create a class of players far superior to the average performer, who, in emulation, begins by frequent practising to make a toil of what should be an amusement. Still, the rage for competition is one of the features of the age, and its invasion of every branch of sport is doubtless inevitable.



## THE FASHIONS DURING THE YEAR.

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NEVER, it would seem, since the necessity for dress arose, from the transgression of our first mother, has so much attention been given by men to the subject as during the present year. Philosophers, physicians, professors, and art critics, have all directed their thoughts towards the question, and womankind receives universal reprobation for her frivolous and careless consideration of so grave a matter. "Clothes," declares one eminent philosopher, "are the most important element of our civilisation, giving individuality, distinction, social polity." "Neither in tailoring nor in legislation does man proceed by accident, but the hand is ever guided by the mysterious operations of the mind." And a short time afterwards we find a celebrated London physician saying that "dress should be to the body what language is to the mind."

The year has also been remarkable for the number of "movements" on the subject of dress and fashion which have taken place in it, beginning in September, 1881, with Lady Bective's vigorous effort to help the wool industry of England by bringing back "lustre" materials to fashion. Her ladyship was aided in her patriotic endeavours by a noble band of ladies. A number of dresses were designed especially to harmonise alpaca (that most useful of materials) with the present styles of making. The effort was undoubtedly successful in placing light-coloured alpacas again on the list of "things worn by society," and also in turning every one's attention to the fact that English tweeds, serges, and light woollen textiles were excellent wear.

Lady Bective's well-meant movement was met by a determination at Bradford and elsewhere to supply suitable and stylish goods which might compete with the manufactures of France and Germany; and "the Bradford manufactures," advertised by every draper, were much improved in style, and consisted of serges, diagonally-woven cloths, tweeds, and an old favourite, French merino, besides good cashmeres and all wool beiges.

The spring also saw another great effort in favour of English materials—cotton ones being the object—at Manchester. A grand entertainment was given at the town-hall with the object of bringing satens and other cotton fabrics into notice, with novel

suggestions for making them up. A wonderful display was the consequence, most of the materials being manufactured on purpose for the occasion, and being exquisite in colour, design, and texture.

The next "movement" which must be recorded was the exhibition of the National Health Society in the March of 1882. This exhibition was called one of hygienic clothing, and in its scope appeared to be gathered together "all things new and old." The two most novel inventions were the "divided skirt" and the "digitated stocking," made after the manner of gloves, with a separate division for each toe.

The divided skirt is described by the Society as follows :—

"It is a skirt divided between the legs, so as to clothe each leg separately ; the underclothing to be arranged beneath this as most convenient. It should come to about the instep, quite clearing the ground, and be made about a yard round at the ankle. The divided skirt may appear under the top skirt for about two or three inches without attracting the least notice." This novel garment owes its origin to the Viscountess Harberton, and appears to have been adopted as their principal dress reform by a society which has lately come into existence, under the name of the "National Dress Society."

The exhibition comprised the Greek dress, of which Mrs. Pfeiffer is the originator and restorer, the æsthetic dress worn in "Patience," the stays and boneless corsets designed and worn by students of Girton and Newnham Colleges, and the digitated stocking already mentioned. The exhibition may be regarded as a sequel to the lectures on hygienic dress delivered by Mr. Treve, at Kensington, and consisted chiefly of articles intended to illustrate his ideas. Miss Bella Gladstone contributed a doll, dressed in order to show the true hygienic principle of wearing apparel.

The National Dress Society "protests against corsets and tight-fitting bodices of any kind ; against high or narrow heeled boots and shoes as injurious to the health ; against heavy skirts, and "tie down" cloaks, or any other garments which impede the movement of the arms. Lastly, against crinolines of every kind and shape."

Amongst the novelties also shown at this exhibition was the "normal" wool underclothing, made after the system of Professor Gustav Jaeger, M.D., of Stuttgardt, in Germany. This gentleman considers that mankind should wear constantly a light non-conducting material made of wool, which should be elastic, and serve to retain the heat of the body in winter, and to protect it in summer from high external temperatures. No other clothing

but that made of wool is to be worn, and even the sheets of our beds are to follow this idea.

The most recent of our masculine protestors against the follies of dress is Colonel Ziegler, the Chief Surgeon of the Swiss Federal Army, who has read a paper before the Hygienic Congress, assembled at Geneva, on the subject of the boots and shoes of the present day, as worn both by men and women. He says that the high-heeled shoe, and still more the high-topped boot, are rapidly ruining the figure and grace of those who wear them. High heels throw the body forward, and hence produce a stoop, and eventually, by breaking down the arch of the instep, render flat feet inevitable.

A late writer on the subject of dress divides the ladies of the present day into two classes, the athletic and the æsthetic, and declares that the exhibition of the National Health Society, of which we have been speaking, shows this double tendency in the English costume of to-day. "The show of garments at this exhibition was a manifesto of rebellion against the dictates of fashion. Lady Harberton's dual garment in the last challenge of the athletic rebels, the "Patience" evening dress that of the æsthetics."

The attire of the athletes, the ulster Newmarket coat and jacket, billycock hat, or ulster hat, high boots, leather petticoats, etc., is all somewhat masculine, and suitable to women who follow their husbands, fathers, and brothers, on many a tramp over moor and down, as good comrades, fearless of wind and rain, as good shots, as keen fishermen as they.

These ideas of dress may be termed purely English, and it is the first time, probably, in the history of dress and fashion, that we could chronicle such an event in our history, for we always seem to have been singularly uninventive in the matter of fashions, and we have borrowed our best clothes from all the world, and decked ourselves, like the daw, in borrowed feathers. For centuries we have been indebted solely to the French, and it has been left for the Nineteenth Century to see a complete revolt against French fashions, and not only that, but the French as well as the Germans, Russians, and other foreigners copying from us, to the extent of thinking Englishmen the best dressed in the world, and that certain articles of apparel, such as the ulster, what are called "tailor-made" costumes, and the tight-fitting coat, with all water-proofed cloaks, can be made nowhere but in England, or by English hands.

We have thus discussed the Athletic or common-sense dress of one of our English parties, and must now proceed to the

*Æsthetic.* We are all more or less familiar with this style, from the columns of *Punch*, the pencil of Du Maurier, the oddities of the "Colonel" and "Patience." The type of this costume is taken from the pictures of Botticelli, and Mantegna. It is the Florentine dress worn in their day, which was a Renaissance Revival of the Greek ideas. The full bodice, with or without the square-shaped white muslin chemisette, the girdle at the waist, the full long straight over-skirt, looped up through a second girdle placed low on the hips, and from which hangs the pouch or alms-bag. Are they not all familiar to us? From the walls of the National Gallery, Virgins in red and blue, or blue and white, look down on us, and Saint Annas and Saint Catherines are all clothed in this graceful manner.

The modern version is, alas, usually a painful travesty of this ancient grace and beauty. It lacks fulness, as a rule, and whether our modern fabrics are more flimsy than the ancient, or whether our modern ideas enjoin more economy in their use, the effect is poor and thin.

But we cannot afford to be ungrateful to the *Æsthetics* in any way. To them, and to their writings, preachings, and example we owe our emancipation from French fetters, and our first ideas of attempting some kind of individuality in dress, which in our opening paragraphs we find advocated by the philosopher and the physician alike. We owe to them an immense addition of new colours to our *répertoire*, and never more than this year has their good influence been shown in the manufactures of new woollen materials. We owe them also the infusion of fresh taste and skill in designs of all kinds in our houses, furniture, and surroundings. In nothing more is this influence shown than in the fresh harmonies of colour, the exquisite blues and greens, the salmons and reds, the yellows, which harmonise with blues, reds, and greens. All these they have found out for us, and each year as it passes shows fresh beauties of the kind.

The last public event in which dress was intimately connected was the appearance of the first "Sweet Girl Graduates," of the London University, before the Senate, on May 10th, 1882, to have their degrees conferred, on which occasion they were habited in what is called, "the appropriate Academical Costume," the black silk robe, flowing in long straight lines over black short walking dresses of simple make. They also had the square college caps, and wore the proper hoods.

In addition to the two divisions we have spoken of, there are a large number of Englishwomen who follow still the French fashions in dress, but by no means blindly as of yore; and, thanks

to our æsthetic reformers, with more true feeling as to what is at once suitable and becoming, both as to position and age.

In closing this part of the subject, we must draw attention to the fact that the faults in our dress once known to be hygienically wrong, it may be hoped we shall reform them. The æsthetics declaim against the small waist, which, according to them, is quite contrary to the lines of beauty and grace. The generality of women meet this abuse of stays by saying that without them the modern dress would have the effect of a pillow tied in the centre. The æsthetics meet this objection by the suggestion that the waist-line should be raised to its proper place—where the ancient Greeks had it—three inches above the present line; and that the high-waisted gown entirely does away with this sloppy appearance. An appearance of length may be given to the waist by having long peaks both in the back and the front. The long lines of the skirt thus given are considered as wonderfully improved in grace.

We must now turn to the practical consideration of what was worn during the year, when we fear we shall find that we were none of us so much affected by the dress reformers as we should have been, and in spite of the abuse lavished on it, we have certainly to record the return of crinolines to fashion in the modified form of a "dress improver." The year has nearly passed without it extending its limits into a real crinoline, with its hard and wired circle, but the size of the "dress-improver" at the back has certainly increased, and, in some cases where stiff steels are employed, it is an ugly excrescence. The best and most becoming consisted only of flounces of crinoline fastened inside the back breadths of the dress, which gave more soft and flowing lines.

The popular colour adopted for dress was brown; but some of the colours we now call by this name we should once have termed red or yellow, and all the shades range between these two hues, and are called by names in some measure descriptive of them. Terra-cotta was also in much favour both in woollen and satin, for dresses, and the new terra-cottas of the season partook more of the red-brown hue of the Devonshire soil than of the yellowish tint we have known as terra-cotta, and it is a more becoming colour to the complexion of both the blonde and the brunette. A new colour called "Pharaoh" made its appearance, which may be called a brick red, from which its name may have been derived in memory of the brick-making King of Egypt. A calmer hue was chocolate brown, and a charming red russet; while for those who prefer yellow-browns, a new hue called "burnt corn" was introduced, which was very pretty. The next colour during the year which ranked in popularity near to brown was green, in that variety

known as "Tyrolese;" this and olive-green were the fashionable tints for cloth over-garments. Red was very much worn for bonnet-trimmings, but the effort to introduce a bright shade of it for costumes entirely failed, though many red bonnets were seen throughout the winter. In the spring, the new *ficelle*, or twine-colour, made its appearance, in lace, and afterwards in every fabric, and was very popular throughout the summer. The favourite colours for young girls were cobalt and sapphire blues, and pink dresses seemed almost as popular as they had been the previous year.

The first consideration is naturally the materials for dress both new and old, as used in 1881-2. In the way of silken fabrics, satin still takes the lead, and during the first part of the year, silk appeared to be entirely unused. Later on, however, a very decided return of silk to fashion was seen, and both black, and later on coloured silk were much in vogue. The summer silks were all of them reproductions of the old-fashioned colouring, the designs being checks of all sizes. They were much used in company with cashmere of the same shade or darker, for every-day, useful dresses; ribbons and parasols to match could also be obtained. Surahs, foulards, and louisine silks were also very much worn, and were made in stripes and checks, some also with borders of a contrasting colour. Dotted foulards, and others with peculiar Japanese patterns, and the Indian carah and tussore were used by young ladies, the two latter having generally crimson silk mixed with them, and lace to match them in colour.

Moiré was extremely fashionable during the entire year. It was used for jacket bodices, skirts of costumes in concert with other materials, and more widely for sashes, which were placed as a prominent feature on nearly every dress, and even on many of the jackets and mantles for out-of-door wear. A newly introduced material was a woollen fabric, watered in all colours, but it cannot be said to have met with success, as it lacked brightness, and had no beauty to recommend it. The *moiré*, or watered effects were very much seen in combination with satin stripes, and satin brocaded figures on *moiré* grounds. The new *moirés* are made in larger waves than the old, and consequently take in more effects of light. *Chiné* patterns alternately with satin stripes were much used for *moiré*, and on the surface of the *Chiné* design large brocaded figures were seen. In fact, the tendency of all designs of the year is towards size, some of them being almost more like those adopted for the chintzes used in upholstery, than like anything hitherto seen for dresses. These are always used with plain self-coloured fabrics, never at any time for entire dresses.

Glacé, or shot satins, were one of the early novelties of this season, and the changeable look of the satin as the light shone on it was very effective. Red was in great favour for giving the shot appearance to bronze, olive, blue, brown or white. An effort was made to bring black and white stripes into fashion again, both narrow and wide, and they were principally seen in silk and satin in alternate stripes, although black and white moiré and black and white brocades in stripes were all manufactured.

Grenadines were made in the richest and most fanciful varieties, and almost had the appearance of brocaded silks, so closely were they bestrewn with floral and other devices, which left little of the surface visible, and that little a silken lace which gave the name "grenadine." In some, heavy satin stripes alternate with brocaded flowers, and some very handsome ones are made with large velvet or plush dots on a thin foundation. The grenadines woven in Spanish lace patterns are very beautiful, and also some of the embroidered ones with silk and jet.

The use of tinsel interwoven in the fabric of woollen materials, was a noteworthy event in the autumn of 1881. The material was not so conspicuous as it might have been, as the colours with which it was mixed were carefully and tastefully selected. Some of the more expensive of the pieces showed as much tinsel as wool, but these were not in the ascendant. The fashion, however, was but fleeting.

The subject of plush, so immensely popular last season, introduces itself naturally in connection with tinsel and the metallic style of ornamentation, for on that material much of it has been lavished. The tinsel is interposed as threads between stripes or woven ridges of plush, and their glitter and sparkle is softened by the softness of the material. Gilt was much in favour, but steel, silver, and beaded threads were used. These plushes were used as bonnet and dress trimmings, and were very effective and bright for the dulness of the winter season. Plain plushes were also employed as trimmings, and also as jacket bodices to wear over silk and satin skirts, but not so much as they were last season. Several new kinds were introduced. Ridged plush was a striped kind, with the nap cut in unequal lengths, giving the effect of a staircase. The other striped plushes had one stripe of plain plush, and the alternate one had the nap curled closely. The plaided, or plush in squares was perhaps one of the most remarkable, the effect being produced by cutting the nap of different lengths so as to form a pattern, each square being lower or higher than its neighbour.

Sateens were probably the most important material of the

year, as they were useful and popular upon all occasions, both for day and evening festivities, and quiet, at-home apparel. The surface was so exquisitely glossy and fine in texture that they seemed equal to silk, while really only of cotton, and they were produced in endless variety as to colour and design. The plain and figured were made up together, and each was manufactured with such careful reference to the other that the pattern-books contained both the plain and the figured sateens, which suited them. The designs were chiefly floral, some quite small, and wholly covering the surface, but no rule appears as to contrasts of colour, since the groundworks were both light and dark, and nature not unfrequently is quite set at defiance by flowers and leaves of comparatively sombre hues being scattered on pale grounds. The size of the flowers and sprays is very great sometimes, and they are set wide apart so as to give perfect individuality to each spray. One of the most favoured flowers being the heartsease, in all variety of size and hue, and also the sunflower, cornflower, and the French poppy, with its blue-green leaves.

Tweeds, as the material for ordinary walking-dress, as well as for travelling and walking, must be next mentioned. Those worn by ladies are similar, in some ways, to those worn by gentlemen, but they are lighter in texture, finer in the weaving, and gayer and more diversified in their colouring. The surface has a loose twill. The checks are usually quite small, and the stripes narrow, the patterns being woven with a certain degree of indistinctness, which falls under the term "invisible," a touch of brightness being added by threads of red or yellow. These tweeds appear to have been the favourite dress material throughout the summer, and every lady apparently had one for useful occasions in the wardrobe.

What are called "fancy woollens," with different varieties of woven surfaces, and fancy colourings, appear, as they do, each season in unlimited quantities, showing, however, clear traces of æsthetic influences in the yellow hues, each colour having apparently a tendency to develop yellow. Small invisible checks or hues are seen as patterns, and here we find again the fashion of mixing the plain material and the figured together to make up the costume, the plain being usually of a lighter, never a darker, shade than the checked material.

The popularity of plaided materials has been steadily growing throughout the year. The designs are generally of plaids graduated in their shadings, and the stripes are so arranged as to follow in regular transition from dark to light. There is a general tendency to yellow here also, but the other favourite æsthetic colours are much used, olive-green, bronzes, blue-greens, as well as mahogany and walnut colours.



Nuns' veiling, that beautiful thin woollen fabric, which has been so popular for several seasons, was quite as much used during the present one; they were made in all shades of colour, and were made up usually with little or no trimming. Cashmere is also in its usual favour, especially in black, which people apparently never tire of wearing. Merino, camels' hair, vigogne, and the Chuddah materials sold by the chief Indian shops were all much used, in fact, these fine woollens mixed with brocades, silks, satins, and moiré form the useful portion of the female wardrobe; and their excellent wearing qualities and moderate prices commend them to all purses—the difference being in the trimmings and other accessories.

The subject of the trimmings worn during the year must be next discussed. The most expensive were the rich beaded embroideries in black, white, and all colours, beside the metallic lustres of steel, silver, and gold. They were made in leaf-patterned borderings, for laying flatly on the edges of over-skirts, jackets, or dresses; and also in sprays, plastrons, and designs to ornament the fronts, sleeves, and points of the bodice. These beaded designs are carried out on stiffened net, and also on the material itself, and the whole front breadth is sometimes ornamented in the richest Indian and oriental designs of pine-cones, foliage, and birds. Black and steel are the usual tints for these magnificent trimmings, which are wrought usually on satin, but can be bought cut out and prepared to fasten on any dress for which they may be desired. If the reports may be believed the Americans have been the most extravagant in the use of these beaded trimmings, and Dame Rumour speaks of £100 as being no rare or extraordinary price, while 900 dollars to 1,000 dollars was quoted as the price paid in New York for the ornamentation of one dress alone.

Perhaps the prettiest trimmings of all were the white pearl embroideries for white satin dresses and bridal toilettes, which were in some cases mixed with white crystal beads. The fringes also were very beautiful, and so were the cords and flat trimmings in beads prepared for mantles and dresses. These cords were very much used as ornaments for dresses in the winter of 1881, and were both graceful and elegant.

The bands of marabout feathers, made in imitation of chin-chilla, seal, and otter, and brought out during the winter of 1881, were a complete novelty. The feathers were fastened to the band most securely by a solution of gutta-percha, and were not only thus rendered waterproof, but the bands could be cut apart without displacing any of the feathers. This marabout trimming formed

a beautiful substitute for fur, and was much in favour for the very long cloaks and coats of plush, velvet, and satin, on account of its light weight and its elegance. It was made in black, white, grey, and brown, and was used to match the colour of the cloak.

The amount of lace worn during the year has been very great, and in the summer yards upon yards have been lavished on a single foulard or satin dress. Machine-made Valenciennes, and Mechlin, guipure, and Chantilly were all used, and every description seemed to be fashionable.

The borderings of self-coloured silk embroidery, which appeared at the same time as the tinsel, were in better taste, and are still at the end of the year in great demand for the trimmings of satin, woollen, and cashmere dresses. This embroidery is not expensive, and is done by machine in the Hamburg style, and appears fine and good.

Parasols were made to match the dress when it was made of sateen, but otherwise the chief choice has lain between black and white or grey satin, trimmed with lace.

The fashionable furs of the winter season of 1881-82 were the blue fox, the stone marten, the baum or tree marten, and the skunk; sable, of course, holds its own place with the wealthy, who can afford it, as it always will. Besides those we have mentioned, we have those dyed furs, the name of which is legion—dyed raccoon, and otter, and that inexplicable fur called genet, which is probably rabbit, the great reliance of those who are obliged to think of economy. Fur linings were universally worn, the general covering being black silk. Fur capes were worn by both young and old, and were fashionable in every kind of fur.

A description of hat, which much resembles the "Gainsborough," is always more or less in vogue, in straw of all colours, as well as felt. A newer hat is out with a rather wide, flat, round brim, much narrower at the back, and pinched together in two or three folds over the coils of hair. It is worn at the back of the head, and sets like a frame round the face. The crown is low, and the brim is lined with pale-coloured silk, cream-coloured lace, or a half wreath of roses. In the country and at the seaside sailor hats were worn throughout the year, the new idea being to trim them with a large bunch of flowers, instead of a plain band of ribbon.

The Princess of Wales set the example of wearing fruit on the bonnet instead of flowers, by appearing in public in a bonnet composed of red currants; since then both white and black currants have been popular, the bonnet requiring no other trimming save a pair of velvet strings. Just as people were beginning to fear

the "fruit" idea might be too much extended, it seemed to die a natural death.

Beaded bonnets in all colours—black, blue, green, and red—were worn, and the extraordinary fancy for these beaded coverings has led to the establishment of quite a new industry in the vicinity of the late Lord Beaconsfield's residence at Hughenden Manor.

The last head-covering which deserves mention is the Spanish hat, which is a revival of the original hat, that preceded and originated the famous "pork-pie" of years ago. It has a low, square crown, and the brim, which is rather wide, is turned up all round and covered with velvet. This is also sometimes ornamented with jet knobs.

Mantles of large size have been in vogue throughout the year, and the cloak called "Mother Hubbard" gives the tone to the universal shape. Coloured linings are used, and the sleeves are gathered at the wrists with a frill, which falls over the hands. The materials of which these cloaks are made are extremely rich, figured satin and rich brocaded silk and velvet being the usual choice. They are also made of fine cloth, tweed, cashmere, and waterproof, and with many they take the place of an ulster.

Nothing in the way of out-of-door mantles was ever so useful or so economical as the Louis XV. coats of velvet and brocade, which have been worn for the last three seasons over any and every underskirt. They are perfectly plain in cut and fit, and in consequence must be well fitting, and as a rule they are most affected by those ladies who have good figures, and do not mind showing them. The effort to introduce the long swallow-tailed coat, called the "Directoire," fortunately failed, as nothing can be imagined more ugly or unbecoming. The last thing of the season, an ugly, long, tight-fitting garment called a "redingote," seems likely to meet with the same fate.

Little or no change has been visible in the style of dressing the hair in vogue in England. Every one clings faithfully to the *crêped* or curled front, and the Greek knot set low at the nape of the neck behind; and it speaks well for the good features and colouring of English women that they require so little "tiring of the hair" to set them off. Amongst elderly ladies the same style obtains, save that more hair is coiled in plaits at the back, and a comb is generally added. Amongst the changes of the year must be chronicled the very general dismissal of the too-much worn cap, and the adoption of the style of wearing the natural grey and white locks without this expensive addition.

The subject of the fashions, and their faults, in the boots and shoes of the year has already been in some measure discussed.

The pointed toes and high heels have continued to be the fashion in the shop windows, but in private many efforts are constantly being made to obtain better-shaped coverings for the sorely-tortured feet. Embroidered tops to the shoes for ladies have been the ruling fancy of the year. Shoes have been more worn than boots, and buttons continue to be more used than laces for the fastening of both. Much "shiny" or patent leather has been worn by both sexes for dress shoes, and the gentlemen almost universally have adopted coloured silk stockings for wearing with them in evening dress.

Black and coloured stockings have been universally worn throughout the year by women and children; the rule seeming to be that, if they do not match the dress in colour, they must be black. Coloured, or black, petticoats have taken the place of white ones also; and, perhaps it may be owing to the coldness of our summers, but white starched petticoats seem quite out of demand save for evening wear. The early part of the summer witnessed an attempt to restore white stockings to their ancient use amongst us, but these reformers have apparently met with no encouragement. The passion for embroidery extended long ago to these articles of our wearing apparel, and we have had every description of design worked in silks on cotton, woollen, and silk stockings. The latter especially have been made the vehicles for much lovely work.

Gloves fully a yard long are amongst the novelties of the year. They are intended to wear with short sleeves, and are of the Mousquetaire shape, closed all the way up, with three buttons only at the wrist. The fancy for wrinkled gloves arose from those painted by Gainsborough and Sir Joshua Reynolds, and, even in the morning, they may be seen long enough to draw over the sleeves high up on the arm, the bracelets being worn over them. These gloves are invariably "Gants de Suède," the rough side of the kid turned outwards, and the favourite colour is tan, or a yellowish brown. Gloves with very large gauntlets, such as were worn by the cavaliers, and going by their name, came into fashion with the spring; and the usual silk or taffetas gloves were made in all colours, shapes, and sizes. Black kid and black "Gants de Suède" were as much worn apparently as when they first came into fashion, as they were too useful and economical a style to give up; but this year, for the first time for some years, we have used light-coloured gloves, which had been given up in favour of black both for evening and out-of-door wear. Tan and dogskin gloves have been especially patronised by both sexes this summer, and, singular to say, the more soiled they became the

more fashionable they were, and it was not considered at all the proper thing to have them to all appearance new. Black mitts have superseded coloured ones, and were much worn for quiet evenings and small dinner-parties.

In jewellery, we have become more emancipated from the control of the fashion which compelled us to wear everything *en suite*; everything to match. Were the earrings silver, the whole of the jewellery must be silver, and had you a necklace of lapis, everything worn must be of lapis too. At present the greatest diversity exists, and everything and anything is worn, no regularity or matching being attempted. Necklaces are a great feature, and all kinds are fashionable, from the semi-precious stones to Venetian beads and amber. This fashion we owe to the æsthetics, beyond a doubt, and we are thankful for a pretty old fashion revived. The earrings worn are very small indeed, and brooches seem to have vanished, except a very small long brooch used to pin the strings of the bonnet. All kinds of bracelets are worn, and seem indispensable with the short sleeves which reach half way up to the elbow and display so much of the arm. Indian bangles remain the chief favourites, and silver jewellery, though so long worn, still holds its own as regards fashion.

The fashionable-shaped bodice for this year has been the same as that of former years, a long and attenuated waist—high shoulders made to appear so by the cut of the armholes and the short shoulder seams—the collar cut very high, and very high collars or frills. Short costumes have been universally worn for all occasions, long dresses being unknown except in the case of elderly ladies.

The new style of making skirts has been the plain petticoat finished with a full frill round the edge, an upper skirt made full on the hips, in panier style, and a bodice pointed both back and front. Some of these bodices have the over-skirt gathered and sewn on to them at the edge, and in some the skirt is closely gauged for about four inches below the waist. The panier shape is very popular, and the increasing tendency is towards crinoline in some shape or other.

The chief dress worn by young ladies has been of some woollen material such as cashmere or cheap serge, made in the style introduced as artistic by certain art schools in London. The bodice is gathered round in a circle to the shoulder-tops, and fastened behind; the belt is wide, and the waist is large. The skirt is long and rather narrow, with a lightly-draped over-skirt; the sleeves are made with one deep puff, which bags loosely to the elbow, and the lower part of the sleeve is severally plain. Some young ladies eschew cuffs and collars, others wear large lace ruffs.

The method of making the skirts last winter was to put on them the largest amount of gatherings possible; this year the gatherings have given place to four flounces reaching nearly to the waist, and a short much-puffed over-skirt, with a rather short allowance of back drapery, which has been much curtailed in its proportions since the year before last when it first came in; and the "crinolette" or "dress-improver" is principally relied upon to give fulness. This drapery is generally only a straight, unshaped piece of material.

We end our paper on the year's fashions with the sound of "wedding bells." The expenses of marriages have also been curtailed. The new fashion of having the ceremony at three p.m., enables the bride to be married in her travelling dress, and her parents to avoid the expense of a wedding-breakfast by substituting, if they wish, a large afternoon party. In any case, many more ladies are married in their travelling dresses than was formerly the case, and widows adopt this plan in nearly every case. On the contrary, the number of presents expected and given is enormous, and seems to increase with each fashionable wedding. The dress of the year for the bride has been white satin, and the bridesmaids seem to have constantly worn short costumes of white surah, or some other soft make of silk, which may be trimmed with white muslin and lace. Caps are entirely out of fashion, and so are veils, and they appear to have been replaced by the Gainsborough hat of white straw, or by small hats made of the material of the dress. All kinds of flowers are worn, and the choice no longer is confined to white ones only.

## OBITUARY OF EMINENT PERSONS.

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ADMIRAL BAILLIE HAMILTON, many years permanent Secretary to the Admiralty, died October 1st. He was born in 1803.

THE RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN B. KARSLAKE, Q.C., died on October 4th. He was born of a legal family in 1821, and on being called to the Bar in 1846 chose the Western Circuit, where he and Lord Coleridge speedily became the two great rivals. In 1867 he entered Parliament as Conservative member for Andover, but was made Solicitor-General the year before by Lord Derby, and soon became Attorney-General. In April, 1875, he had to resign office owing to failing sight, which resulted in total blindness. But for this affliction there is no doubt he would have been raised to the Bench, but it had compelled his total retirement for several years.

BARON HENRY CHARLES HAYMERLE, Foreign Minister of Austro-Hungary, died very suddenly on October 10th. He was born in 1828 of German parents, and at an early age entered the Austrian Diplomatic Service, and was by Count Beust made *Chargé d'Affaires* at Constantinople and Athens. In 1877 he was made Ambassador at Rome, and in 1878 was third Austrian delegate at the Berlin Congress. Count Andrassy retiring in 1879, Baron Haymerle became his successor. The Emperor called in person the day but one following his death to condole with the baroness, and attended the funeral.

THE REV. FRANCIS KNYVETT LEIGHTON, D.D., Warden of All Souls College, Oxford, died on October 13th. He took his degree in 1828.

RAPHAEL MONTI, an Italian sculptor of some ability, who had settled in this country, died on October 16th at the age of sixty-three. His "Veiled Vestal," and "Eve after the Fall," are perhaps his best known works.

THE RIGHT HON. WILLIAM N. MASSEY, M.P., died on October 25th. He was born in 1809, and under Lord Palmerston became in 1855 Under Secretary of the Home Office. In 1859 he became Chairman of Committees of the House of Commons, and has published one or two minor works bearing on history and law.

THE RIGHT REV. JOSEPH BARCLAY, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of Jerusalem, died on October 22nd. He succeeded Dr. Gobat in that see, and was known as a fair Hebrew and Arabic scholar.

BARON JAMES DE ROTHSCHILD died at Paris on October 25th at the early age of thirty-seven.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL COLIN MACKENZIE, C.B., died on October 23 at the age of seventy-five. In the humiliating Cabul disasters forty years ago, he stood out conspicuously for his bravery and skill, and was specially demanded as one of the hostages by Akbar Khan. He was repeatedly thanked by Government for his services in India.

MR. ALEXANDER MACDONALD, M.P. for Stafford, died on October 31st. He was born in 1821, and at eight years of age began to work as a miner, and never had any education but at evening schools. In 1851 he became a country schoolmaster, and held several offices in connection with various miners' associations. He was returned both in 1874 and at the last election, mainly by working class votes, as an advanced Liberal, and as a *bonâ fide* working class representative his opinions were always listened to with respect.

MR. WILLIAM BRODIE, R.S.A., Secretary of the Royal Scottish Academy, and himself a sculptor of considerable reputation in Scotland, which possesses many statues by him, died on October 30th.

THE VERY REV. GEORGE HENRY SACHEVERELL JOHNSON, M.A., Dean of Wells, died on November 4th. He was born in 1808, and had a very distinguished University career. While a tutor of Queen's College, he had as pupils both the present Archbishops and the late Dean Stanley, and with the Rev. C. Eliot he took charge of the Book of Psalms in the well-known Speaker's Commentary.

JOHN McHALE, Roman Catholic Archbishop of Tuam, died on November 7th at the age of ninety years, being born in 1791. The penal laws were not then fully repealed, and the lad was for years only a "hedge-scholar," but at sixteen entered Maynooth, and when still under the canonical age, at twenty-three, was admitted to the Roman Catholic priesthood by Archbishop Murray. During the O'Connell days McHale, then a professor at Maynooth, wrote largely in the papers with vigour and effect. In 1825 he became coadjutor Bishop of Killaloe. He wrote several theological books, especially that on "The Evidences and Doctrines of the Church," and was made Archbishop of Tuam in 1834. On O'Connell's death the Archbishop may be said to have been the most prominent representative of Irish thought and



feeling. With all this, he was most active up to the last in performing personally his ecclesiastical duties.

MR. H. N. SOLOMON died on November 14th, in his eighty-sixth year. He took a great interest in education, particularly of the Jewish race, and was in 1817 one of the founders of the Jewish Free School. He was also a profound Hebrew scholar, and probably the best Talmudist in England.

GENERAL SIR EDWARD HARRIS GREATHED, K.C.B., died on November 19th. He was born in 1812, and was knighted for distinguished services in the field during the Indian Mutiny.

ADMIRAL EDWARD ST. LEGER CANNON died on November 19th. He entered the navy in 1816, and had seen a great deal of general service.

SIR HUGH OWEN died on November 20th. He was born in 1804, and up to 1872 was in the office of the Poor Law Commissioners. He gave up the Chief Clerkship to devote himself to educational work, especially the University College of Wales, to which lately he gratuitously devoted nearly his whole time. He was also Chairman and Treasurer of the National Temperance League.

MR. JOSEPH NETTLEFOLD, chief proprietor in the great screw manufacturing firm of that name, died on November 22nd. He had been a considerable benefactor to Birmingham public institutions, including a gift of the site and a great part of the cost to the King's Heath Institute.

MR. ADAM MCCALL, leader of the Livingstone Inland Mission in Central Africa, died at Madeira on November 25th, at the early age of thirty-one years.

ADMIRAL J. H. MARRYAT, C.B., died on November 30th. He was born in 1830, and was promoted to be commander for distinguished services in buoying the channel and piloting the Baltic squadron in the attack on the Russian Dnieper forts during the Crimean War. He was a nephew of the well-known sea novelist.

THE REV. J. M. WILSON, D.D., President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, died on December 1st. Before being chosen President he had been for a long while White's Professor of Moral Philosophy.

ADMIRAL EDWARD JOSEPH BIRD died on December 3rd in his eighty-third year. He had served a great deal in various Polar expeditions, and commanded the *Investigator* in Sir John Ross's expedition of 1848-9.

CARDINAL EDWARD BORRAMEO, Camerlengo and Premier Cardinal of the Romish Church, died early in December at the comparatively early age of sixty years.

**MR. T. F. BURGERS**, President of the Transvaal at the time of the collapse and annexation by England, died on December 9th. He had been a minister of the Dutch Reformed Church, and was born in 1834.

**SIR ANTONIO BRADY** died on December 12th. He was born in 1811, and up to 1870 was in the Civil Service, which he left in that year as Superintendent of the Purchase and Contract Department. After that year he gave up his whole time to social and sanitary reforms and religious movements, many missions and other philanthropic institutions in the East End owing much to his labours.

**DR. JOHN LUDWIG KRAFF**, the well-known African explorer and missionary (Church Missionary Society), died about the middle of December. He was born at Wurtemberg in 1809.

**MR. GEORGE EDMUND STREET, R.A.**, died on December 18th. This distinguished architect was born in 1824, and studied for five years under Sir Gilbert Scott, under whose influence he adopted the Gothic style as his prevailing type. He restored many churches, built the nave of Bristol Cathedral in Early English style, and was engaged in many similar works; but he will be best known to posterity as the architect of the New Law Courts in the Strand, which he did not, however, live to see completed. The French style of these Gothic buildings will cause the removal of the scaffolding to be awaited with much interest.

**DR. ISAAC J. HAYES**, the well-known American Arctic explorer, died in New York on December 18th. His first expedition was as surgeon to Dr. Kane in 1854, but he afterwards went on his own account in 1860, and again to Greenland in 1869.

**MR. GRENVILLE MURRAY** died in Paris on December 20th. He was formerly in the Diplomatic Service, but for the last dozen years of his life devoted himself to literature and journalism, being best known by his "French Pictures in English Chalk."

**VISCOUNT HELMSLEY, M.P.** for Yorkshire, and elder son of Lord Feversham, died at Madeira on December 24th. He had been compelled by ill-health to resign commissions in the Guards and Yorkshire Hussars.

**THE RIGHT HON. SIR ROBERT LUSH**, Lord Justice of Appeal, died on December 27th. He was born in 1807. Two years before he was called to the Bar he published a treatise on a recent Act, and the same year in which he was called, his celebrated "Practice," which long remained a text-book. In 1857 he was made Q.C. After eight years' practice as a leading counsel he was, without having ever sat in Parliament or held any official status, made in 1865 a Justice of the Queen's Bench. On

the Bench his immense knowledge of procedure was of great use, also in working out rules and details of legal reforms. In 1879 he was sworn member of the Privy Council, and in 1880 made Lord Justice of Appeal.

ADMIRAL RUSSELL ELIOTT died on December 28th. He was born in 1802, and had been in the navy since he was twelve years of age.

MR. WILLIAM HARRISON AINSWORTH died on January 3rd, 1882. He was born in 1805, and while still in his teens published his first novel, "Sir John Cheverton." In 1834 appeared "Rookwood," describing Dick Turpin's ride to York, and this was followed by "Jack Sheppard;" but this aroused so much criticism that Ainsworth abandoned that line, and adopted another, typified by "Old St. Paul's," and many other works of that class. His works, upon the whole, had an amazing sale, but it is to be feared that the early ones had much to do with founding that penny "robber literature" which has done so much to corrupt boys, and it is not to be regretted that even his more modern style seems passing away.

MR. BERNAL OSBORNE died on January 4th. He was born in 1814, the family being of Jewish extraction, and entered Parliament for Wycombe in 1841, sitting successively for Middlesex, Dover, Liskeard, Nottingham, and, finally, Waterford; being ultimately dismissed in the general election of 1874. His reputation in the House of Commons as a keen, humorous, and witty debater, who could always set the House in a roar, will still be remembered by most readers. Mr. Bernal Osborne was equally popular in society, and even his many pungent sayings made but few enemies amongst his many friends.

MR. RICHARD HENRY DANA, a distinguished American author, jurist, and politician, died at Rome on January 6th, in his sixty-seventh year. His "Two Years Before the Mast" is widely known, but his reputation will chiefly rest on various works bearing upon international law.

MR. N. DAVIS died on January 6th, at Florence. In 1856 he was sent to explore the ruins at Carthage, and his various works on that subject, especially "Carthage and her Remains," are well known.

SIGNOR DUPRÉ, the most celebrated of Italian sculptors, died at Florence on January 8th, at the age of sixty-five.

LORD LURGAN, Lord Lieutenant of County Armagh, died on January 16th, in the fifty-first year of his age.

SIR DANIEL MACNEE, LL.D., President of the Royal Scottish Academy, died on January 17th, in his seventy-sixth year.

**THEODORE SCHWANN**, a celebrated German physiologist, died at Liège, on January 17th. He was born in 1810, and in 1839 put forth his celebrated "cell theory," in which he traced all growth and phenomena of life to cell formation. This theory made an epoch, and gave a new stimulus to biology; and though it has of late been attacked by Haeckel and others, there are at this moment signs that it may ere long again receive the adhesion of men of science.

**MR. JOHN LINNELL**, the artist, died on January 20th. He was born in 1792, and soon became noted for his landscapes. He was almost equally so for the fact that he would never allow himself to be elected a member of the Royal Academy.

**PROFESSOR THOMAS EDWARD CLIFFE LESLIE**, a distinguished writer on political economy, and for twenty-five years Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy at Trinity College, Belfast, died on January 27th, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. His writings were unusually lucid in expression and popular in style, and did much to make his subjects popular amongst general readers.

**SIR ROBERT CHRISTISON**, Bart., M.D., F.R.S., died on January 27th. This distinguished Scotch physician was particularly skilled in toxicology; for forty-five years he filled the chair of *Materia Medica* in Edinburgh University, and was ordinary physician in Scotland to the Queen. Sir Robert was born in 1797.

**MR. RICHARD BRINSLEY KNOWLES**, son of the dramatist Sheridan Knowles, and himself a literary magazine writer of some repute, especially in historical directions, died on January 28th. He was born in 1820.

**BERTHOLD AUERBACH**, the celebrated German novelist, died at Cannes on February 8th. He was born in 1812, and his early studies were in theology, from which he turned to philosophy; but he will be best known to all mankind by his tales of the Black Forest, and others describing German life, which have been translated into many languages.

**PROFESSOR THEODORE KULLAK**, founder and director of the Berlin Academy of Music, and one of the most accomplished piano players of the day, died at Berlin on March 1st, aged sixty-four.

**MR. EDWIN JAMES**, formerly M.P. for Marylebone, and a distinguished barrister, died on March 6th. He was born in 1812. In 1858 he distinguished himself by his brilliant and successful defence of Dr. Bernard, who was tried at the Old Bailey for complicity in the Orsini plot against Louis Napoleon. This returned him to Parliament in 1859. In 1855 he became

Recorder of Brighton. In 1861 it was intended to make him Solicitor-General; but he became heavily involved, and had to resign both his seat and Recordership. There was more involved than mere pecuniary liability, and the Benchers of the Inner Temple struck his name off the books. He went to America, where he practised with some success; but on his return to England he found things less favourable, and only a few weeks before his death there had been a proposal to raise a subscription on his behalf.

THOMAS EGERTON, LORD WILTON, died on March 7th. He was born in 1799, and was chiefly known as a keen and successful racing sportsman. He was also for some years Commodore of the Royal Yacht Squadron, was a first-rate huntsman, and good musician. Few people, perhaps, know that the psalm-tune called "Prestwick," is the production of this old English sportsman.

MR. JOHN MUIR, LL.D., D.C.L., died on March 7th, aged seventy-three. He had held high positions in the Indian Civil Service, from which he retired in 1854; but is far better known as a distinguished Sanskrit scholar, and for the use he made of his Indian opportunities. His "Original Sanskrit Texts" have been particularly useful to most Sanskrit scholars.

SIGNOR LANZA died at Rome on March 9th. He was born in Piedmont in 1819, and in 1848 became President of the Sardinian Parliament, and often afterwards held office in the Cabinet, usually as Minister of Finance, but occasionally of Public Instruction. In 1866 he resigned, and the following year became President of the Chamber of Deputies. In 1870, having tried in vain to form a Ministry himself, he took office under Signor Sella, as Minister of the Interior, but in 1873 retired, though he continued to sit in Parliament. He was honoured with a public funeral.

The same day (March 9th) died at Rome GENERAL MEDICI, born in 1829, who had fought with Garibaldi in South America, and rejoined him in Italy in 1848. After other distinguished services as an Italian patriot general, he organised and commanded the 4,000 who reinforced Garibaldi's "thousand" in Sicily, captured Messina, and fought at Caprea, but declined to join in the attack on Rome in 1862. He was chief aide-de-camp to King Victor Emmanuel, who created him Marquis of Vascello. His obsequies were conducted at the public expense on March 11th, the same day as Signor Lanza's.

SIR CHARLES WYVILLE THOMSON, Professor of Natural History in Edinburgh University, died on March 10th, at the early age of fifty-one years. He was chiefly educated at Edinburgh

University, and from 1850 held various botanical or natural history professorships in Ireland and Scotland, and was a well-known contributor to the scientific journals. In 1868 he accompanied the *Porcupine* expedition to the Bay of Biscay; and it is a recent memory how he was appointed superintendent (so far as the civilian element was concerned) of the *Challenger* expedition, in which were associated with him K  lliker and other men of European reputation. On his return, at the request of the Treasury, Sir Wyville Thomson undertook to direct the publication of results and edit the reports; but, unfortunately the voyage had told severely on his health, and he was obliged to resign his Edinburgh chair at the end of 1881, and to cease work about New Year in 1882. He was knighted on the return of the expedition.

CAPTAIN HANS BUSK, so well known for his efforts in getting up the Rifle Volunteer movement, died on March 11th, in his sixty-seventh year. The efforts alluded to were begun in 1837 at Cambridge University. In 1869 a large sum was raised by public subscription as a testimonial to his patriotic services, but he declined to accept the money personally, and therewith purchased a lifeboat and established a station at Ryde. Captain Busk also founded, and several years edited, the *New Quarterly Review*.

MR. WILLIAM NEWMARCH, F.R.S., died on March 23rd. He had been for many years manager of Glyn's Bank, but is mentioned here as a distinguished authority on financial and economic questions, his "History of Prices," now out of print, being a standard text-book. Mr. Newmarch was in his sixty-second year at the time of his decease.

COLONEL LAWRENCE WILLIAM MAXWELL LOCKHART died on March 23rd. He will be better known as a literary man than a soldier, though he was an able and good officer. Nephew of the well-known editor of the *Quarterly Review*, he soon began to contribute stories to *Blackwood*, and subsequently published several novels of merit. In the Franco-German war he was one of the special correspondents of the *Times*, and sent home the graphic account of the first startling battle of Forbach, written under a heavy fire.

MR. HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW died on March 24th at Cambridge, Mass. He was born in 1807, and intended for the law; but he very early showed his inclination for literature, and when a professorship of modern languages was offered him by Bowdoin College, where he had graduated with high honours in 1821, he gladly accepted it, and spent several years on the Continent in preparation. His impressions of this period were

published in the "Pilgrimage beyond the Seas." Returning in 1829, he filled his chair for five years, when he succeeded Ticknor in a similar chair at Harvard, with another year's interval between in Europe. At Harvard he wrote "Hyperion" and "Voices of the Night;" and also in succession "Ballads and Poems," "Poems on Slavery," "The Spanish Student," "Poets and Poetry of Europe," "The Belfry of Bruges," and "Evangeline." In 1854 he resigned, and afterwards published, in 1858, "Miles Standish;" in 1863, "Tales of a Wayside Inn," and numerous other poems. The funeral was very quiet and simple, and took place on March 25th, at Mount Auburn Cemetery, being noticeable for the last public appearance of Mr. Emerson, who so soon followed his friend to the tomb.

DON ANTONIO DORREGARAY, the celebrated Carlist general, died on March 24th. He was best known for his merciless method of waging war, declaring in 1874 by actual proclamation that he would carry on the struggle "without clemency," and keeping his word.

THE BISHOP OF CHRISTIANSUND, in Norway, Dr. Jørgen Engebretsen Moe, died on March 27th. He was born in 1813, and is celebrated for his wonderful collection of Northern Folklore. His famous "Norske Folke-eventyry" has been twice translated into English, and comprises the best collection of fairy or "folk" tales in the world.

THE RIGHT REV. FREDERICK BAKER, D.D., Bishop of Sydney and Metropolitan of Australia, died on March 31st. He was born in 1808, and made Bishop of Sydney in 1854.

LIEUT.-GENERAL ROBERT CANNON died on April 5th. He had rendered valuable service in the Crimean War, saving the surrender of Silistria, and was decorated by the Sultan.

M. LE PLAY, an eminent French social economist and writer, died on April 5th, in his seventy-second year. Amongst Catholics he has been compared to Mr. Herbert Spencer, though his views were widely different—in fact, so far as they could be gathered, they pointed rather to the organisation of labour and the revival of some patriarchal system of government.

MR. DENIS FLORENCE MCCARTHY, an Irish poet of much merit, whose popular and patriotic songs have had strong influence on his countrymen, died on April 7th. In 1871 his literary merits obtained him a Civil List Pension.

MR. JOHN FRANCIS, publisher of the *Athenæum*, but chiefly known for his able, energetic, and successful efforts for the repeal of the Taxes upon Knowledge, representing that cause out of Parliament as Mr. Milner Gibson did within it, died on April 8th, in the seventy-first year of his age.

MR. DANTE GABRIEL ROSSETTI, painter and poet, died on April 9th. The son of a well-known poet and scholar of the same name, he was born in 1828, and was for a short time a pupil of the Royal Academy, but soon became known as a leader of the so-called pre-Raphaelite School, founded on the earlier Florentine style, and a close imitation of the minutiae of nature as seen in good photographs. It is needless to recount how the new movement was criticised ; but gradually, as ridiculous exaggerations and mannerisms were purged away, it came to be seen that there was "something in it," and it has had a profound influence on all English art. Rossetti scarcely ever exhibited, but his magnificent colouring and deep feeling needed not this aid, and his pictures never failed to find eager purchasers. His first volume of poems was that published in 1870, and also showed a very high order of merit, and his "Ballads and Sonnets" about ten years later.

MR. SAMUEL GURNEY died on April 9th. He was born in 1816, and brought up to business, ultimately becoming leading partner in the celebrated firm of Overend, Gurney and Co., the profits of which were said to have been at one time a quarter of a million annually, but which eventually failed disastrously, with liabilities of eleven millions. Mr. Gurney was in Parliament from 1857 to 1868, and for eighteen years was President of the Committee of the Anti-Slavery Society. He was prominent in the Society of Friends, and well known in the philanthropic world.

MR. EDWARD DUNCAN, a distinguished water-colour painter, and one of the oldest members of the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colours, died on April 11th. He was born in 1803, but though of such great age was working on important pictures to within a few weeks of his death, in a manner which showed no loss of power.

THE REV. HUGH PEARSON, Canon of Windsor, died on April 13th, in his sixty-fifth year. He was a man of unusual ability and learning, but preferred a quiet life in his parish and rural deanery of Somning to preferment, finding there abundant work, and acquiring extraordinary influence as a parish minister. He was a peculiar friend of the late Dean Stanley, and was informally tendered in succession to him the Deanery of Westminster, but declined. His religious views were broad, like his friend the Dean's, but this did not prevent the essence and truth of Christianity being apparent in his whole life, and he was specially anxious to see the quarrel between religion and science ended or done away, dying in the firm belief that it would be.



MR. AUGUSTUS VANSITTART died on April 17th. A distinguished Cambridge scholar, he led a quiet life of studious pursuits and munificent benevolence, much of his leisure being given to the collection and collation of "various readings" in the New Testament, which it is hoped may be ere long published.

MR. FRANCIS McDONOGH, Q.C., the foremost member of the Irish bar, died on April 18th, being struck down while arguing an appeal case in the House of Lords. As a lawyer and advocate he had hardly an equal; but in politics he was not much relied on by any party, and lost all opportunity for official advancement. He was counsel for Mr. Parnell in the State trials.

SIR HENRY COLE, so well known in connection with South Kensington, died on April 18th. He was born in 1808, and began public life in connection with the Public Record Office. About 1845 he began to devote special attention to the development of industrial art, and assisted the Society of Arts in a series of exhibitions. He suggested that every five years these should assume a national character—an idea taken up by the Prince Consort, and which resulted in the Great Exhibition of 1851. Subsequently Mr. Cole was invited by Earl Granville to undertake the reorganisation of the Government Schools of Design. From his efforts gradually grew the Science and Art Department, of which Sir Henry was secretary till 1873. The South Kensington Museum was largely due to the same energy and influence. Sir Henry Cole has been made a C.B. for his services in connection with the Exposition of 1851; he was English Commissioner at the Paris ones of 1855 and 1867, and among the principal managers of the London Exposition of 1862. In 1873, after fifty years of public life, he retired on a full pension and with a K.C.B., but still continued largely to devote himself to educational and art-industrial movements.

MR. CHARLES ROBERT DARWIN, the distinguished naturalist, died on April 19th. He was born on February 12th, 1809, and was educated at Cambridge, from whence he went direct for the five years' voyage in the *Beagle*, which shaped so much of his after-life, but at the same time much injured his health, as he never got over sea-sickness. After publishing various works descriptive of his voyage, and several very important papers on various natural history subjects, in 1859 he published the "Origin of Species," which has more than any other event in the century changed the whole course of scientific thought. He states that it was in 1844 he began to draw up his conclusions, after "five years' thought," and the substance of his conclusions had appeared in a paper read the year before, with one embody-

ing similar views from Mr. A. R. Wallace, before the Linnæan Society. Then followed many other works on Climbing Plants, Orchids, Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication, the Descent of Man, the Expression of the Emotions in Men and Animals, Insectivorous Plants, Effects of Cross and Self-Fertilisation in Flowers, Different Forms of Flowers, and Earth-worms. While some of these may at first sight appear to diverge from the main current of his thought, in reality they all found a connecting link in the one idea that nature was not a collection of detached facts, but one organic whole. Of the revolution which has been effected by this grand conception, some mention has been made elsewhere; and it only need be added here that the great naturalist was totally free from the anti-theologic bias so strongly shown by many of his disciples, and never replied by one bitter or hostile word to the many assaults made upon him by so-called orthodox theologians, in this offering an example it would be well if others followed. By the general wish of the whole nation Mr. Darwin was buried in Westminster Abbey, men of all schools and classes gathering round his grave.

SIR THOMAS ERSKINE PERRY died on April 22nd. He was born in 1806, and having first declined in 1831 to be called to the bar, ultimately was so in 1835, the year after his marriage. For seven years he published law reports; but in 1841, having lost his property by a bank failure, he became judge, and later Chief Justice, in the Supreme Court of Bombay. He retired from Indian service in 1852, and entered Parliament in 1854, resigning his seat in 1859 to be made a Member of the Council of India. He was created a Privy Councillor the January before his death.

THE REV. GERVASE SMITH, D.D., one of the most influential ministers and popular preachers in the Wesleyan body, died on April 22nd. He was born in 1822, and in 1844 entered Didsbury College, making his name whilst a student there. In 1874 he was secretary of Conference to his close friend Dr. Punshon as president; and in 1875 was himself elected to the presidency. Latterly his health failed, and he was obliged partially to retire from the ministry in 1880.

MR. JAMES RICE, a novelist who ever since 1871 had helped to produce a series of works by the unusual method of "collaboration" with Mr. Walter Besant, the joint production being published under their joint names, died on April 26th, at the early age of thirty-six years. He was called to the Bar in 1871, but devoted himself entirely to literature. For several years he was proprietor and editor of *Once a Week*, and for some years

previous to his death had been London correspondent to the *Toronto Globe*.

MR. RALPH WALDO EMERSON died on April 27th. He was born in 1803, of Unitarian parentage, and educated at Harvard under the same influences. By Dr. Channing's advice he entered the Unitarian ministry, and became pastor of a church in Boston in 1829, and whilst in that position worked heartily with the Methodist Father Taylor in establishing a Seamen's Bethel. In 1832, however, he resigned his charge, finding even Unitarian doctrines too strait for him, and perhaps also influenced by the loss of his wife, to whom he had been but three years married. In 1833 he visited Carlyle, and occasionally preached, as he did afterwards, but would never take another church. In 1834 he published his first work, a small one, under the title of "Nature," and the following year married again. The next few years were chiefly occupied by lectures and addresses, and by the explanation of his ideas in a magazine he edited with Margaret Fuller, but in 1841 appeared his first series of "Essays," followed by a second in 1844, and "Poems" in 1847. The next year he lectured in England. Later on he went enthusiastically into the Anti-slavery struggle, and so, as essayist, lecturer, and teacher, he did his work, till in 1870 his last course of lectures, on "The Intellect," was given at Harvard. Soon after this his house was burnt, and the shock affected his memory; but he was believed to have taken the cold which resulted in his death at the funeral of Longfellow, a few weeks before.

MR. JOHN N. DARBY died on April 29th. This remarkable man was born in 1800, and after being called to the Bar took orders; but in 1827 joined a movement for religious fellowship upon a totally unsectarian basis, commonly known as the Plymouth Brethren movement, in which were also united Mr. A. N. Groves, Mr. George Müller, and others. Later on, however, dissensions grew up concerning refined questions relating to the precise nature of Christ, which ended in Mr. Darby's faction excommunicating the rest with a relentless rigour unparalleled in the history of Christendom, and which has resulted in Brethrenism splitting up into a number of the narrowest sects known.

LORD FREDERICK CHARLES CAVENDISH, Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, was brutally assassinated at Dublin, with Mr. Burke, on May 6th, the very day of his arrival with Earl Spencer to take up their new appointments. He was born in 1836, being the second son of the Duke of Devonshire, and in 1859 became private secretary to Earl Granville till 1864. In 1865, and till his death, he was returned to Parliament

for the West Riding. In 1872 for a short time he was private secretary to Mr. Gladstone, and in 1873 was made a Lord of the Treasury. In 1880 he became Financial Secretary to the Treasury, which post he gave up to accept, on Mr. Forster's resignation owing to the release of the imprisoned Irish members, the arduous duties of Secretary for Ireland. Coming thus to Ireland with Earl Spencer especially as a messenger of good will, he was brutally struck down in Phoenix Park at the close of a day of public rejoicing, by four men who undoubtedly acted as the agents of a secret organisation. Lord F. Cavendish was singularly beloved and popular among all who came in contact with him.

MR. THOMAS H. BURKE, permanent Under-Secretary for Ireland, was assassinated at Dublin on May 6th, whilst in company with Lord Cavendish. He was born in 1829, and began his career as private secretary to the then Under-Secretary, Sir Thomas Redington. He was also private secretary to Lord Carlingford, Sir Robert Peel, and Lord Hartington, when these were Chief Secretaries. Finally he served under Sir Thomas Larcom, whom he succeeded as Under-Secretary in 1868. Mr. Burke was an Irishman, a Catholic, and a man of the highest character. He had made great sacrifices for his family, and died unmarried, leaving a sister, who was pensioned by Government. Mr. Burke was known to be a true friend to the tenant-farmers of Ireland, and had the warmest regard and deepest respect of all who knew him.

DR. JOHN BROWN, so well known as the author of "Rab and his Friends," died on May 11th. He was born in 1810, and for nearly forty years wrote nothing, when his "*Horæ Subsecivæ*" appeared, to show what ripeness of judgment, sweetness of character, and real genius were possessed by the Edinburgh doctor. After this he was an occasional contributor to *Good Words* and other magazines, and a third volume of "*Horæ Subsecivæ*" was published only a few weeks before his death. In 1876 a Civil List Pension was bestowed upon him in recognition of his literary merits.

CONSTANTINE KAUFMANN, the well-known Russian general, died on May 14th. He was born in 1818. In 1855 he was of sufficiently high rank to settle, with General Williams on our side, the capitulation of Kars, and was then appointed to assist General Miliutin in the reorganisation of the Russian army. After ten years as Governor of Lithuania, in 1867 he became Governor-General of Turkestan. The distance of his province from the capital gave scope to his daring and ambition; and how, even in spite of professed "orders" from St. Petersburg, he annexed in

succession Bokhara and Khiva, is very well remembered in this country. In 1875 he further conquered and annexed Khokand, which brought him close to Afghanistan, and his intrigues with Shere Ali thereupon precipitated the Afghan War. This check at the close of his career need not blind either his countrymen or ours to the energy and ability with which Kaufmann extended Russian dominion in Central Asia.

THE REV. WILLIAM HANNA, LL.D., D.D., died on May 24th, in the seventy-fourth year of his age. He was a son-in-law of Dr. Chalmers, and, with the latter, left the Church of Scotland at the Disruption. For sixteen years Dr. Hanna was a colleague with Dr. Guthrie, but resigned about fifteen years ago from ill-health. He wrote many works, chiefly on the Huguenots and religious subjects, some of which have gone through many editions; and also edited the "Letters of Thomas Erskine."

SIR JOHN HOLKER died on May 24th. He was born in 1828, and articled to a solicitor, but afterwards entered at Gray's Inn, and was called in 1854. He went the Northern Circuit, and subsequently moved to London, in 1864, where he obtained an extensive practice, having been brought into note by success in conducting a case before Parliament when deserted by all of his three leaders. In 1868 he became Q.C., and soon developed a speciality for patent cases. In 1872 he was returned as a Conservative for Preston, and in 1874 was made Solicitor-General, and the year after Attorney-General. On going out he had an immense practice, and it was a matter of wonder that his own party never raised him to the Bench. Mr. Gladstone having first in vain offered a puisne judgeship, finally offered him the post of Lord Justice of Appeal, which he gratefully accepted, saying (he was known to suffer from incurable disease) that his political opponents had "done something to soothe the last hours of a dying man."

GENERAL GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI died at Caprera on June 2nd. He was born at Nice in 1807, and became a sailor, like his father; but in 1831 he fell in with Mazzini, and an unsuccessful attempt on Genoa compelled him to leave for South America, where he took service with the Republic of Rio Grande do Sul, then in rebellion against Brazil. Many years of incessant adventure were passed there, where also he found his wife Anita, and his first son Menotti was born; but in 1848 events in Italy were too strong an attraction, and he returned to Europe, where after Custozza he proclaimed Charles Albert a "traitor." A few months later the Roman Republic was proclaimed, and the celebrated siege of Rome by the French took place. On its fall Garibaldi retreated,

and in his flight from French and Austrian troops, in the woods near Ravenna, Anita died in his arms, two cherished companions being taken and shot by the Austrians, in defiance of all law and justice, to the indignation of Europe. Garibaldi again crossed the Atlantic, and spent the next five years as a tallow-chandler in New York. He returned in 1855 to Piedmont, and in 1859 had the satisfaction of beating the Austrians several times before the peace of Villafranca. At Genoa, that same winter, he organised his famous "thousand," with which he invaded Sicily, landing on May 11th, and entering the capital in triumph on September 7th, shortly after delivering up the whole kingdom to Victor Emmanuel, and retiring again to Caprera. Unfortunately, he was then returned to Parliament, where he was soon soured by the cession of Nice and other matters, and organised an expedition against Rome, but was opposed, wounded, and taken at Aspromonte by the Italian troops under Pallavinci, and again conveyed to Caprera. In 1864 he visited England. Again he attempted Rome in 1867, this time with the concealed connivance of Ratazzi, and was defeated by the Pope's and French troops at Mentana. Again removed to Caprera, three years later he saw Rome conquered without having any hand in the expedition. He fought for Republican France against the Germans, and since then occasionally took a rather prominent but not altogether successful share in modern Italian politics. A national funeral took place at Caprera, but Garibaldi's own direction that his body should be cremated was not carried into effect.

REINHOLD PAULI, Professor of History at Göttingen, died on June 3rd. He was a distinguished authority on English history.

MR. SCOTT RUSSELL, the eminent engineer, died on June 8th. He was born in 1808, and at twenty-four temporarily filled the chair of Natural Philosophy at Edinburgh. In 1835 he presented to the British Association the results of his first researches into the nature of waves, and so important did they appear that the experiments were continued at the Association's expense, the report appearing in the 7th Volume of the "Transactions." The result was the well-known "wave-line," or hollowed instead of convex line, theory of constructing ships now universally followed, and which has so enormously increased naval speed. In 1847 he was elected F.R.S. As a ship constructor he was unrivalled at this time. In 1851 he was joint secretary with Sir Stafford Northcote to the Great Exhibition. From thence he was known as a great Thames shipbuilder, and made both the *Great Eastern* and her engines. He was one of the earlier

advocates of ironclads, and jointly designed the first armoured frigate—*The Warrior*. In civil engineering, Scott Russell's greatest work was the magnificent dome, 360 feet clear span, of the Vienna Exhibition of 1873. Mr. Russell contributed important articles to the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and wrote a large work on naval architecture, besides less important publications.

MR. CECIL LAWSON died on June 10th, from pulmonary disease, at the early age of thirty years. His landscapes had attracted great attention in all art circles and several shown at the Grosvenor Gallery, which were bought privately for large sums, showed original genius of a very high order.

VICE-ADMIRAL ROBERT HALL, C.B., Secretary to the Admiralty, died on June 11th. He was born in 1817, and saw much service in the Russian War, both in the Baltic and Black Sea.

GENERAL DE CISSEY died on June 15th. He was born in 1810, served in Algiers and the Crimea, and in the Franco-German war opposed the capitulation of Metz. In 1871 he became French Minister of War, an office he filled several times after.

MR. WILLIAM BODHAM DONNE died on June 20th, at the age of seventy-four. He was distantly related to the family of the poet Cowper, and was himself a well-known contributor to many magazines, besides which he brought out various volumes of classics, edited the letters of George III. to Lord North, &c. He was also Examiner of Plays in the Lord Chamberlain's department.

THE REV. THOMAS JONES, a celebrated Congregational preacher, and possessing in peculiar degree the eloquence and force which so often distinguish those of Welsh nationality, died on June 24th. He was born in 1819, and his early ministry was in Wales. From thence he came to London, where he exercised singular power over highly-educated and thoughtful as well as ordinary hearers. For a time he then laboured in Australia, but finished his career in Swansea.

THE RIGHT HON. WILLIAM GEORGE, BARON CHESHAM, died on June 26th. He was born in 1815. In his early years he entered the army; subsequently he sat in Parliament as a Liberal for Peterborough and Bucks, until in 1863 he succeeded to the peerage. In his later years his lordship took considerable interest in agricultural pursuits.

MR. F. TURLE, for fifty-eight years the organist of Westminster Abbey, died on June 28th.

MR. HABLOT KNIGHT BROWNE, the artist so well known as

"Phiz" in the works of Dickens, Lever, and others, died on July 7th. He was born in 1815.

MR. BENJAMIN N. WEBSTER, the eminent actor, dramatist, and manager, died on July 7th. Born about the beginning of the century, he acted at the Haymarket in 1829, and became lessee in 1837. He then built the new Adelphi, and afterwards won success at the Olympic, Princess's, and St. James's Theatres. In 1874 the profession gave him a complimentary benefit at Drury Lane, which produced him £2,000.

GENERAL MICHAEL DIMITRICH SKOBELEFF died on July 7th. He was born in 1843, and first came into note in the Khiva Expedition. Immediately after, his exploration in disguise of the old bed of the Oxus established his peculiar character for personal gallantry. Subsequent services obtained him promotion, but his exposures of official corruption brought him into disgrace, and he was in disfavour when the Russo-Turkish war broke out. But his skill and gallantry could not be kept back. The Grand Duke Nicholas acknowledged him to be the "hero" at Plevna, and his successes in the Schipka Pass did much to hasten the conclusion of the war—only Europe, in fact, stopped him at the very gates of Constantinople. His expedition to Turkestan, and successful attack upon Geok Tepé, are very recent memories; still more recent being the general's imprudent Panslavist speeches in Paris, and consequent recall to Russia. The idol of the Russian army and people, and the ablest general his country has possessed for many years, Skobelev's death caused in Russia a sensation not easy to conceive.

MR. HENRY KINGSCOTE died on July 13th, in his eighty-first year. As a young man he distinguished himself in manly sports; with maturity he threw himself with the same energy into what may be justly termed religious enterprise, especially the founding of the Scripture Readers' Association.

PROFESSOR E. M. BALFOUR, of Trinity College, Cambridge, lost his life on Mont Blanc, on July 19th. He was born in 1851, in 1878 was elected F.R.S., and was one of the secretaries of the British Association. In 1881 he was awarded a Royal Society medal for his researches in embryology and comparative anatomy. For original research in these subjects he had abandoned the more usual scholastic course, and the result of even his earliest labours, as mentioned above, may almost be said to have opened up a new region of scientific inquiry. In fact, Balfour's success in microscopic investigation was almost phenomenal, and the loss of such an acute and powerful mind, conjoined to such marvellous power of manipulation and observation, has left a blank which at present there seems no one able to fill.



MR. ROBERT WILSON, C.E., F.R.S.E., died on July 28th. He was born in 1803, and was managing partner till lately of the great engineering firm of Nasmyth, Wilson, and Co. With Mr. Nasmyth he perfected the steam-hammer, and the Titan hammer at Woolwich Arsenal is one of his constructions.

PROFESSOR WILLIAM STANLEY JEVONS was drowned in the sea whilst bathing near St. Leonards, on August 13th. He was born in 1835, and was educated at University College, London. From his eighteenth to twenty-third year he spent in Australia, as Assayer to the Mint; but on his return to England he took up as his more special pursuits logic, philosophy, and political economy. He also wrote on the Coal Supply and various monetary questions; a memoir on the former subject giving rise to a very animated and interesting discussion. Of late he devoted himself chiefly to logic and political economy; and he did much to make such subjects more popular and interesting, and discussed them with a candour and dispassioned search after truth that always made his papers valuable.

THE HON. THOMAS MORETON FITZHARDINGE BERKELEY, legally Earl of Berkeley, died on August 27th, in his eighty-sixth year. He was the fifth son of his parents, but the first after their marriage, the unfortunate position of the family giving rise to the once celebrated "Berkeley Peerage Case." From motives all are bound to respect, the title was never claimed.

MR. GUILDFORD JAMES HILLIER MAINWARING ELLERKER ONSLOW died on August 20th, in his sixty-ninth year. He was formerly in the Scots Guards, and sat in Parliament for Guildford from 1858 to 1874. He will be best remembered for his enthusiastic championship of the "Claimant" to the Tichborne baronetcy.

THE RIGHT HON. MONTAGUE BERNARD died on September 2nd. He was born in 1820, and educated at Sherborne School and Trinity College, Oxford, where he took high honours. He afterwards graduated in Law, winning the Vinerian scholarship and fellowship, and being called to the Bar in 1846. In 1871 he was employed by Government as one of the High Commissioners who arranged the Washington Treaty, and was made a privy councillor and member of the Judicial Committee, having previously been created D.C.L. In 1872 he was engaged jointly with Sir Roundell Palmer to represent the British case before the arbitrators at Geneva.

MR. GEORGE WARDE NORMAN died early in September, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. In 1830 he retired from his original business, in the Norway timber trade, but continued for many

years to work in the City as one of the most influential directors of the Bank of England. As one of the highest authorities on finance he was often examined before Parliament, and gave evidence for six days continuously in the inquiry which resulted in the Bank Charter Act; while, during the crisis of 1847, he was in daily consultation with the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

**THE RIGHT HON. SIR GEORGE GREY, BART., G.C.B.**, died on September 9th. He was born in 1799, educated at Oxford, where he took honours, and called to the Bar in 1826; but in 1828, succeeding to the baronetcy, he abandoned a legal for a political career. After his uncle's Reform Bill of 1832, he was returned for Devonport, which he represented for fifteen years, early making his mark in the House. In 1834 he was made Under-Secretary for the Colonies, in 1839 Judge-Advocate General, and in 1841 Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. In 1846 he became Home Secretary, under Lord John Russell, holding the office till 1852; and by his wise measures chiefly (upwards of 150,000 special constables being sworn in) the celebrated Chartist demonstration of "April 10th" passed off peaceably. In 1852 he lost his seat, but next year was returned for Morpeth, which he represented till his retirement in 1874. In 1854 he was Secretary for the Colonies, but in the following year returned to the Home Office. From 1861 to 1866 he again occupied the Home Office, going out on Lord John Russell's defeat on the Reform Bill, and from thence holding only the position of a private member.

**SIR JAMES ALDERSON, M.D., F.R.S.**, died on September 13th. He was born in 1799, was President of the Royal College of Physicians from 1867 to 1870, was knighted in 1869, and at the time of his death held the office of Physician Extraordinary to the Queen. Sir James is the author of several medical works.

**MR. WILLIAM B. C. FYFE**, a distinguished Scottish artist, died on September 15th, in the forty-seventh year of his age. Mr. Fyfe won the International Exhibition Gold Medal of 1873, and, besides the power and character of his own work, was a collector of singular taste and skill of the characteristic works of brother artists, of which he left a large collection.

**THE HON. AND VERY REV. GERALD VALERIAN WELLESLEY**, Dean of Windsor, died on September 18th. He was born in 1809, his father being Lord Cowley; took orders in 1831, and succeeded to his deanery in 1854. He was also Registrar of the Order of the Garter, Resident Domestic Chaplain to Her Majesty, and held several other offices.

**LORD TENTERDEN**, Permanent Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, died on September 22nd, rather suddenly, while on a visit

with his family to North Devon. He was born in 1834, and obtained a clerkship in the Foreign Office in 1854, and entered at once upon a career of official employment and promotion. In 1870 he succeeded to the peerage, and the following year was appointed secretary to the Joint High Commission for arranging matters in dispute between England and America. Afterwards he assisted in preparing the British case for the Geneva arbitration, and acted as British Agent at the Tribunal.

THE REV. DR. EDWARD BOUVERIE PUSEY died on September 16th. He was born in 1800, and educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, where he took a first Class in classics in 1822, being shortly after made a Fellow of Oriel. He then studied the German language and theology, and when in 1828 he was made Regius Professor of Hebrew, and Canon of Christ Church, it would seem that his mind was slightly inclined towards rationalism. Soon after the celebrated "Tracts for the Times" began to appear under Newman and his friends, and though Pusey at first held aloof, he soon threw in his lot with the new school, and in 1833 the tract on "Fasting" appeared from his pen. Pusey's accession was of the greatest importance to the movement. Inferior in many respects to Newman, his opinions were more fixed, Newman himself remarking that Pusey was "never troubled" with intellectual difficulties; and hence it was that numbers who would otherwise inevitably have followed Newman to Rome, or else been repelled from the movement altogether, remained in the Church of England under Pusey, adherents of the school which bears his name, while yet avowedly sympathising with the Romish Communion. In 1843, Pusey was suspended from preaching for three years, for a sermon on the Eucharist which clearly taught consubstantiation; but he quietly submitted, and went on his way otherwise as if nothing had happened. In controversy he was sufficiently outspoken, and his sarcasm against a judge who had decided that it was lawful in the Church of England to deny the doctrine of eternal punishment, to the effect that no judge ought to pronounce on matters wherein he was "personally interested," was characteristic; but Pusey was as warmly revered and loved for his learning and earnestness, as hated for his opinions, and will ever be remembered as the man who, for good or evil, saw the Church of England totally revolutionised in his own lifetime, and largely by his own efforts.

PROFESSOR WÖHLER, the celebrated German chemist, died on September 23rd. He discovered the metal aluminium, and is the author of well-known text-books on chemical subjects. Professor Wöhler was born in 1800.

# Appendix.

## THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

### PRINCES OF THE BLOOD.

- Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall, &c., *b.* 1841.  
 Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh, Earl of Kent, &c., *b.* 1844.  
 Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, &c.,  
*b.* 1850.  
 Leopold George Duncan Albert, Duke of Albany, Earl of Clarence, &c.,  
*b.* 1853.  
 George William Frederick Charles, Duke of Cambridge, &c., *b.* 1819.  
 Ernest Augustus W. A. G. F., Duke of Cumberland and Teviotdale, *b.* 1845.

### ARCHBISHOPS.

- Canterbury*, Archibald Campbell Tait, D.D., *b.* 1811.  
*York*, William Thomson, D.D., *b.* 1819.

### DUKES.

	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Beaufort</i> ...	H. C. F. Somerset, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1824	Marq. Worcester, <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Bedford</i> .....	F. C. Hastings Russell, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1819	M. Tavistock, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Brandon</i> ...	W. A. L. S. D. Hamilton, K.T. ( <i>Scotch Duke, Hamilton</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1845	Lord C. Hamilton, <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Buckingham</i> & <i>Chandos</i>	R. P. C. T. N. B. C. Grenville, G.C.S.I., <i>b.</i> 1823	W. S. Gore-Langton, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1847 (to Eldm. of Temple)
<i>Cleveland</i> ...	H. George Powlett, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1803	H. Morgan Vane, <i>b.</i> 1808
<i>Devonshire</i> ..	William Cavendish, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1808	Mq. Hartington, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1833
<i>Grafton</i> .....	William Henry FitzRoy, <i>b.</i> 1819	Ld. A. FitzRoy, C.B., <i>b.</i> 1821
<i>Leeds</i> .....	George Godolphin Osborne, <i>b.</i> 1828	Marq. Carmarthen, <i>b.</i> 1862
<i>Manchester</i> ..	Wm. Drogo Montagu, K.P., <i>b.</i> 1823	Visct. Mandeville, <i>b.</i> 1853
<i>Marlborough</i>	J. W. Spencer-Churchill, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1822	Marq. of Blandford, <i>b.</i> 1844
<i>Newcastle</i> ...	H. P. A. D. Pelham-Clinton, <i>b.</i> 1864	Ld. H. Pel.-Clinton, <i>b.</i> 1866
<i>Norfolk</i> .....	Henry Fitzalan-Howard, <i>b.</i> 1847	E. of Arundel and Surrey, <i>b.</i> 1879
<i>Northumber-</i> <i>land</i> .....	Algernon George Percy, <i>b.</i> 1810	Earl Percy, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Portland</i> ...	J. W. A. C. J. Cavendish-Bentinck, <i>b.</i> 1857	Ld. H. Cav.-Bentinck, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Richmond</i> & <i>Gordon</i>	Chas. H. Gordon-Lennox, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1818	Earl of March, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Rutland</i> .....	C. Cecil J. Manners, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1815	Ld. J. Manners, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1818
<i>St. Albans</i> ..	W. A. A. de Vere Beauclerk, <i>b.</i> 1840	Earl of Burford, <i>b.</i> 1870
<i>Somerset</i> ...	Ed. Adolphus Seymour, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1804	Ld. Arch. Seymour, <i>b.</i> 1810
<i>Sutherland</i> ..	G. G. W. Sutherland-Leveson- Gower, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1828	Mar. Stafford, M.P. <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Wellington</i> ..	A. Richard Wellesley, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1807	L.-Col. H. Wellesley, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Westminster</i>	H. Lupus Grosvenor, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1825	Earl Grosvenor, <i>b.</i> 1853

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*

## MARQUISES.

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Abercorn</i> ...	James Hamilton, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1811	Marq. of Hamilton, <i>b.</i> 1838
<i>Abergavenny</i> ...	William Nevill, <i>b.</i> 1826	Earl of Lewes, <i>b.</i> 1853
<i>Ailesbury</i> ...	E. A. C. Brudenell-Bruce, <i>b.</i> 1811	Visct. Savernake, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Ailsa</i> .....	Archibald Kennedy, <i>b.</i> 1847	Earl of Cassillis, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>Anglesey</i> ...	Henry Paget, <i>b.</i> 1835	Earl of Uxbridge, <i>b.</i> 1875
<i>Bath</i> .....	John Alexander Thynne, <i>b.</i> 1831	Visct. Weymouth, <i>b.</i> 1862
<i>Bristol</i> .....	Frederick Wm. J. Hervey, <i>b.</i> 1834	Chas. H. A. Hervey, <i>b.</i> 1862
<i>Bute</i> .....	J. P. Crichton-Stuart, K.T., <i>b.</i> 1847	Earl of Windsor, <i>b.</i> 1881
<i>Camden</i> .....	John Charles Pratt, <i>b.</i> 1872	Lord Geo. M. Pratt, <i>b.</i> 1843
<i>Cholmondeley</i> ...	W. H. H. Cholmondeley, <i>b.</i> 1800	Earl of Rocksavage, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Exeter</i> .....	William Alleyne Cecil, <i>b.</i> 1825	Lord Burghley, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Hertford</i> ...	F. H. G. Seymour, C.C.B., <i>b.</i> 1812	Earl of Yarmouth, <i>b.</i> 1843
<i>Lansdowne</i> ..	H. C. K. Petty-Fitzmaurice, <i>b.</i> 1845	Earl of Kerry, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>Normandy</i> ...	G. A. C. Phipps, G.C.M.G., <i>b.</i> 1819	Earl of Mulgrave, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Northampton</i> ...	William D. M. Compton, <i>b.</i> 1818	Earl Compton, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Ripon</i> .....	G. F. S. Robinson, K.G., G.M.S.I., <i>b.</i> 1827	Earl De Grey, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Salisbury</i> ...	Robert A. T. G. Cecil, K.G., <i>b.</i> 1830	Visct. Cranborne, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Townshend</i> ..	John Villiers S. Townshend, <i>b.</i> 1831	Visct. Raynham, <i>b.</i> 1866
<i>Winchester</i> ..	John Paulet, <i>b.</i> 1801	Earl of Wiltshire, <i>b.</i> 1858

## EARLS.

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Abingdon</i> ...	Montagu Bertie, <i>b.</i> 1808	Lord Norreys, <i>b.</i> 1836
<i>Albemarle</i> ...	George Thomas Keppel, <i>b.</i> 1799	Vt. Bury, K.C.M.G., <i>b.</i> 1832
<i>Amherst</i> ...	William Pitt Amherst, <i>b.</i> 1805	Visct. Holmesdale, <i>b.</i> 1836
<i>Ashburnham</i> ...	Bertram Ashburnham, <i>b.</i> 1840	Hon. J. Ashburnham, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Aylesford</i> ...	Heneage Finch, <i>b.</i> 1849	Hon. C. W. Finch, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Bathurst</i> ...	Allen Alexander Bathurst, <i>b.</i> 1832	Lord Apsley, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Beauchamp</i> ..	Frederick Lygon, <i>b.</i> 1830	Viscount Elmley, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>Berkeley</i> ...		
<i>Bradford</i> ...	Orlando G. C. Bridgeman, <i>b.</i> 1819	Vt. Newport, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Brooke and Warwick</i> ...	George Guy Greville, <i>b.</i> 1818	Lord Brooke, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1853
<i>Brownlow</i> ...	Adelbert Wellington B. Cust, <i>b.</i> 1844	Ernest R. C. Cust, <i>b.</i> 1850
<i>Buckingham</i> ...	Rev. A. E. Hobart-Hampden, <i>b.</i> 1793	Lord Hobart, <i>b.</i> 1860
<i>Cadogan</i> .....	George Henry Cadogan, <i>b.</i> 1840	Viscount Chelsea, <i>b.</i> 1869
<i>Cairns</i> .....	Hugh MacCalmont Cairns, <i>b.</i> 1819	Viscount Garmoyle, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Camperdown</i> ...	R. A. P. Haldane Duncan, <i>b.</i> 1841	Hon. G. A. P. Haldane, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Carlisle</i> .....	Rev. William G. Howard, <i>b.</i> 1808	G. J. Howard, M.P., <i>b.</i> 184
<i>Carnarvon</i> ...	Henry Howard M. Herbert, <i>b.</i> 1831	Lord Porchester, <i>b.</i> 1866

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*EARLS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Cathcart</i> ...	A. F. Cathcart ( <i>S. B., Cathcart</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1828	Lord Greenock, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Cawdor</i> .....	J. F. Vaughan Campbell, <i>b.</i> 1817	Visct. Emlyn, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Chesterfield</i> ..	George Philip Stanhope, <i>b.</i> 1822	Sir H. E. C. Stanhope, <i>Bt.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1821
<i>Chichester</i> ...	Henry Thomas Pelham, <i>b.</i> 1804	Lord Pelham, <i>b.</i> 1838
<i>Clarendon</i> ...	Edward Hyde Villiers, <i>b.</i> 1846	Lord Hyde, <i>b.</i> 1877
<i>Cottenham</i> ...	Kenelm Chas. Edw. Pepys, <i>b.</i> 1874	Hon. E. Digby, <i>b.</i> 1876
<i>Coventry</i> ...	George William Coventry, <i>b.</i> 1838	Visct. Deerhurst, <i>b.</i> 1865
<i>Cowley</i> .....	H. R. C. Wellesley, <i>K.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1804	Viscount Dangan, <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Cowper</i> .....	F. T. De Grey Cowper, <i>K.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1834	Hon. H. F. Cowper, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1836
<i>Craven</i> .....	George Grimston Craven, <i>b.</i> 1841	Visct. Uffington, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Dartmouth</i> ..	William Walter Legge, <i>b.</i> 1823	V. Lewisham, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Dartrey</i> ...	Richard Dawson, <i>K.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1817	Lord Cremorne, <i>b.</i> 1842
<i>De La Warr</i> ...	Reginald Windsor Sackville, <i>b.</i> 1817	Visct. Cantelupe, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Denbigh</i> .....	R. William Basil Feilding, <i>b.</i> 1823	Viscount Feilding, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Derby</i> .....	E. Henry Smith-Stanley, <i>b.</i> 1826	F. A. Stanley, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Devon</i> .....	Wm. Reginald Courtenay, <i>b.</i> 1807	Lord Courtenay, <i>b.</i> 1836
<i>Doncaster</i> ...	W. F. Mont.-Douglas-Scott, <i>K.G.</i> ( <i>Scotch Duke, Buccleuch &amp; Queens-</i> <i>berry</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1806	E. of Dalkeith, <i>K.T.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1831
<i>Ducie</i> .....	H. J. Reynolds-Moreton, <i>b.</i> 1827	Lord Moreton, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Dudley</i> .....	William Ward, <i>b.</i> 1817	Viscount Ednam, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Dufferin</i> ...	F. H. Temple-Blackwood, <i>b.</i> 1826	Visct. Clandeboye, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Durham</i> .....	John George Lambton, <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. F. W. Lambton, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Effingham</i> ...	Henry Howard, <i>b.</i> 1806	Lord Howard, <i>b.</i> 1837
<i>Eldon</i> .....	John Scott, <i>b.</i> 1845	Viscount Encombe, <i>b.</i> 1870
<i>Ellesmere</i> ...	F. C. Granville Egerton, <i>b.</i> 1847	Viscount Brackley, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>Essex</i> .....	Arthur Algernon Capell, <i>b.</i> 1803	Viscount Malden, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Ferrers</i> .....	Sewallis Edward Shirley, <i>b.</i> 1847	Walter K. Shirley, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Feversham</i> ...	William Ernest Duncombe, <i>b.</i> 1829	Vt. Helmsley, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Fitzwilliam</i> ..	W. T. S. Wentworth-Fitzwilliam, <i>K.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1815	Viscount Milton, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>Fortescue</i> ...	Hugh Fortescue, <i>b.</i> 1818	V. Ebrington, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Gainsboro'</i> ...	C. William Francis Noel, <i>b.</i> 1850	Hon. Edward Noel, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Graham</i> .....	D. B. M. Ronald Graham ( <i>Scotch</i> <i>Duke, Montrose</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1852	Marq. of Graham, <i>b.</i> 1878
<i>Granville</i> ...	G. G. Leveson-Gower, <i>K.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1815	Lord Leveson, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>Grey</i> .....	Henry Grey, <i>K.G.</i> , <i>G.C.M.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1802	A. H. G. Grey, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Guilford</i> ...	Dudley Francis North, <i>b.</i> 1851	Lord North, <i>b.</i> 1876
<i>Hardwicke</i> ..	Charles Philip Yorke, <i>b.</i> 1836	Visct. Royston, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Harewood</i> ...	Henry Thynne Lascelles, <i>b.</i> 1824	Visct. Lascelles, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Harrington</i> ..	Chas. Augustus Stanhope, <i>b.</i> 1844	Hon. F. W. W. Stanhope, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Harrowby</i> ...	Dudley Ryder, <i>K.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1798	V. Sandon, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1831

## THE HOUSE OF LORDS—Continued.

## EARLS—Continued.

	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Hillsborough</i>	A. W. J. W. B. Trumbull Hill ( <i>Irish Marquis, Downshire</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1871	Lord A. W. Hill, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Howe</i> .....	R. W. Penn Curzon, <i>c.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1822	Viscount Curzon, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Huntingdon</i> ..	Francis Power P. Hastings, <i>b.</i> 1841	Lord Hastings, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Ilchester</i> ...	Henry E. Fox-Strangways, <i>b.</i> 1847	Lord Stavordale, <i>b.</i> 1874
<i>Innes</i> .....	James Henry Robert Innes-Ker ( <i>Scotch Duke, Roxburghe</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1839	Marq. of Bowmont, <i>b.</i> 1876
<i>Jersey</i> .....	Victor A. G. Child-Villiers, <i>b.</i> 1845	Viscount Villiers, <i>b.</i> 1873
<i>Kimberley</i> ...	John Wodehouse, <i>b.</i> 1826	Lord Wodehouse, <i>b.</i> 1848
<i>Lathom</i> .....	Edward Bootle-Wilbraham, <i>b.</i> 1837	Lord Skelmersdale, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Leicester</i> ...	Thomas William Coke, <i>k.g.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1822	Viscount Coke, <i>b.</i> 1848
<i>Lichfield</i> ...	Thomas George Anson, <i>b.</i> 1825	Viscount Anson, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Lindsey</i> .....	Montague Peregrine Bertie, <i>b.</i> 1815	Lord Bertie, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Lonsdale</i> ...	St. George Henry Lowther, <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. H. C. Lowther, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Lovelace</i> .....	William King-Noel, <i>b.</i> 1805	V. Ockham (a Peer), <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Lytton</i> .....	E. R. L. Bulwer-Lytton, <i>c.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1831	Visct. Knebworth, <i>b.</i> 1876
<i>Macclesfield</i> ..	Thomas Aug. W. Parker, <i>b.</i> 1811	Viscount Parker, <i>b.</i> 1843
<i>Malmesbury</i>	James H. Harris, <i>c.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1807	Adm. Hon. Sir E. A. J. Harris, <i>k.c.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1808
<i>Manfield</i> ...	William David Murray, <i>k.t.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1806	Visct. Stormont, <i>b.</i> 1835
<i>Manvers</i> .....	Sydney Wm. H. Pierrepont, <i>b.</i> 1825	Viscount Newark, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Minto</i> .....	W. H. E. M. K. Elliott, <i>k.t.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1814	Visct. Melgund, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Morley</i> .....	Albert Edmund Parker, <i>b.</i> 1843	Visct. Borington, <i>b.</i> 1877
<i>Mount-Edg-</i> <i>cumbe</i> .....	William Henry Edgcumbe, <i>b.</i> 1832	Visct. Valletort, <i>b.</i> 1865
<i>Munster</i> .....	William Geo. Fitzclarence, <i>b.</i> 1824	Lord Tewkesbury, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Nelson</i> .....	Horatio Nelson, <i>b.</i> 1823	Viscount Trafalgar, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Northbrook</i> ..	Thomas G. Baring, <i>c.s.i.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1826	Visct. Baring, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1850
<i>Onslow</i> .....	William Hillier Onslow, <i>b.</i> 1853	Viscount Cranley, <i>b.</i> 1876
<i>Orford</i> .....	Horatio William Walpole, <i>b.</i> 1813	R. Horace Walpole, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Pembroke &amp;</i> <i>Mont</i> .....	George Robert C. Herbert, <i>b.</i> 1850	Hon. S. Herbert, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1853
<i>Portsmouth</i> ..	Isaac Newton Wallop, <i>b.</i> 1825	V. Lymington, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Poulett</i> .....	William Henry Poulett, <i>b.</i> 1827	Viscount Hinton, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Powis</i> .....	E. J. Herbert ( <i>Irish Baron, Clive</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1818	George C. Herbert, <i>b.</i> 1862
<i>Radnor</i> .....	Jacob Pleydell-Bouverie, <i>b.</i> 1815	V. Folkestone, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Ravenworth</i> ..	Henry George Liddell, <i>b.</i> 1821	Hon. Atholl Liddell, <i>b.</i> 1833
<i>Redesdale</i> ...	J. Thos. Freeman Mitford, <i>b.</i> 1805	(None)
<i>Romney</i> .....	Charles Marsham, <i>b.</i> 1841	Viscount Marsham, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Rosslyn</i> .....	Francis R. St. Clair-Erskine, <i>b.</i> 1833	Lord Loughborough, <i>b.</i> 1869
<i>Russell</i> .....	J. Francis Stanley Russell, <i>b.</i> 1865	Hon. B. A. W. Russell, <i>b.</i> 1872
<i>St. Germans</i> ..	Henry Cornwallis Eliot, <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. C. G. Eliot, <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Sandwich</i> ...	John William Montagu, <i>b.</i> 1811	V. Hinchbrook, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1839

**THE HOUSE OF LORDS—Continued.**  
**EARLS—Continued.**

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Scarborough</i>	R. G. Lumley ( <i>I. V., Lumley</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1813	Viscount Lumley, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Shaftesbury</i>	A. Ashley-Cooper, <i>k.g.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1801	Lord Ashley, <i>b.</i> 1831
<i>Shrewsbury and Talbot</i>	C. H. J. Chetwynd-Talbot, <i>b.</i> 1860	Hon. W. C. Carpenter, <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Somers</i> .....	Charles S. Somers-Cocks, <i>b.</i> 1819	Col. P. R. Cocks, <i>b.</i> 1815
<i>Sondes</i> .....	George Watson Milles, <i>b.</i> 1824	Viscount Throwley, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Spencer</i> .....	John Ponytz Spencer, <i>k.g.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. C. R. Spencer, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Stamford &amp; Warr</i> ...	George Harry Grey, <i>b.</i> 1827	Rev. Harry Grey, <i>b.</i> 1812
<i>Stanhope</i> ...	Arthur Philip Stanhope, <i>b.</i> 1838	Hon. Edw. Stanhope, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1840
<i>Stradbroke</i> ..	John E. Cornwallis Rous, <i>b.</i> 1794	Viscount Dunwich, <i>b.</i> 1862
<i>Strafford</i> ...	George Stevens Byng, <i>b.</i> 1806	V. Enfield (a Peer), <i>b.</i> 1830
<i>Strange</i> .....	J. J. H. H. Stewart-Murray, <i>k.t.</i> ( <i>Scotch Duke, Athole</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1840	Marq. Tullibardine, <i>b.</i> 1871
<i>Suffolk and Berks</i> .....	Henry Charles Howard, <i>b.</i> 1833	Viscount Andover, <i>b.</i> 1877
<i>Sydney</i> .....	John R. Townshend, <i>g.c.m.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1805	(None)
<i>Tankerville</i> ..	Charles Bennet, <i>b.</i> 1810	Lord Bennet, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Vane</i> .....	G. H. R. C. W. Vane-Tempest, <i>k.p.</i> ( <i>Irish Marq., Londonderry</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1821	Viscount Castlereagh, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Verulam</i> ...	Jas. Walter Grimston, <i>b.</i> 1809	Viscount Grimston, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Waldegrave</i> ..	William F. Waldegrave, <i>b.</i> 1851	Hon. H. N. Waldegrave, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Westmoreland</i> .....	Francis William Henry Fane, <i>c.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1825	Lord Burghersh, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Wharnccliffe</i> ..	Edward M. S. G. Montagu-Stuart-Wortley-Mackenzie, <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. F. D. Stuart-Wortley, <i>b.</i> 1829
<i>Wilton</i> .....	Thomas Egerton, <i>g.c.m.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1799	Viscount Grey de Wilton, <i>b.</i> 1833
<i>Winchelsea and Nott.</i>	George James Finch-Hatton, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. M. Finch-Hatton, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Winton</i> .....	Archibald W. Montgomerie, <i>b.</i> 1841	Hon. S. M. Montgomerie, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Yarborough</i> ..	C. A. W. Anderson-Pelham, <i>b.</i> 1859	Hon. V. R. Pelham, <i>b.</i> 1866
<i>Zetland</i> .....	Lawrence Dundas, <i>b.</i> 1844	Lord Dundas, <i>b.</i> 1876

**VISCOUNTS.**

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Bolingbroke &amp; St. John</i>	Henry St. John, <i>b.</i> 1820	Rev. M. W. St. John, <i>b.</i> 1827
<i>Bridport</i> ...	Alexander Nelson Hood, <i>b.</i> 1814	Hon. A. W. Hood, <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Canterbury</i> ...	Henry C. Manners-Sutton, <i>b.</i> 1839	Hon. G. H. M. Sutton, <i>b.</i> 1843
<i>Cardwell</i> ...	Edward Cardwell, <i>b.</i> 1813.	(None)



THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*VISCOUNTS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Clancarty</i> ...	Richard S. Le Poer-Trench, <i>b.</i> 1834	Viscount Dunlo, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Combermere</i> ...	W. H. Stapleton-Cotton, <i>b.</i> 1818	Hon. R. W. S. Cotton, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Cranbrook</i> ...	G. Gathorne-Hardy, <i>c.c.s.i.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1814	Hon. J. S. Hardy, <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Eversley</i> ...	Charles Shaw-Lefevre, <i>b.</i> 1794	(None)
<i>Ezmouth</i> ...	Edward F. J. Pellew, <i>b.</i> 1861	Hon. W. A. W. Pellew, <i>b.</i> 1862.
<i>Falmouth</i> ...	Evelyn Boscawen, <i>b.</i> 1819	Hon. E. E. T. Boscawen, <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Gordon</i> .....	John Campbell Hamilton-Gordon ( <i>Scotch Earl, Aberdeen</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1847	Lord Haddo, <i>b.</i> 1879
<i>Gough</i> .....	George Stephens Gough, <i>b.</i> 1816	Hon. Hugh Gough, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Halifax</i> .....	Charles Wood, <i>G.C.B.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1800	Hon. C. L. Wood, <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Hardinge</i> ...	Charles Stewart Hardinge, <i>b.</i> 1822	Hon. H. C. Hardinge, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Hereford</i> ...	Robert Devereux, <i>b.</i> 1843	Hon. R. C. Devereux, <i>b.</i> 1865
<i>Hill</i> .....	Rowland Clegg-Hill, <i>b.</i> 1833	Hon. R. R. Hill, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Hood</i> .....	Francis Wheler Hood, <i>b.</i> 1838	Hon. G. A. A. Hood, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Hutchinson</i> ...	J. L. G. Hely-Hutchinson, <i>K.C.M.G.</i> , ( <i>Irish Earl, Donoughmore</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1848	Viscount Suidale, <i>b.</i> 1875
<i>Leinster</i> .....	Charles W. Fitzgerald ( <i>Irish Duke, Leinster</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1819	Marquis of Kildare, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Lyons</i> .....	R. B. P. Lyons, <i>G.C.B.</i> , <i>G.C.M.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1817	(None)
<i>Melville</i> .....	Robert Dundas, <i>b.</i> 1803	Hon. and Rev. C. Dundas, <i>b.</i> 1806
<i>Portman</i> ...	E. Berkeley Portman, <i>b.</i> 1799	Hon. W. B. Portman, <i>b.</i> 1820
<i>St. Vincent</i> ...	John Edwd. Leveson Jervis, <i>b.</i> 1850	Hon. C. P. Jervis, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Sherbrooke</i> ...	Robert Lowe, <i>b.</i> 1811	(None)
<i>Sidmouth</i> ...	William Wells Addington, <i>b.</i> 1824	Hon. G. A. Addington, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Torrington</i> ...	George Byng, <i>b.</i> 1812	Lt.-Col. G. S. Byng, <i>b.</i> 1841

## BISHOPS.

Apptd.	
1859	<i>Bangor</i> ..... Jas. Col. Campbell, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1813
1869	<i>Bath and Wells</i> ..... Lord A. C. Hervey, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1808
1869	<i>Carlisle</i> ..... Harvey Goodwin, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1818
1865	<i>Chester</i> ..... William Jacobson, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1805
1870	<i>Chichester</i> ..... Richd. Durnford, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1802
1879	<i>Durham</i> ..... Josh. B. Lightfoot, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1828
1873	<i>Ely</i> ..... Jas. R. Woodford, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1820
1869	<i>Exeter</i> ..... Fredk. Temple, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1821
1863	<i>Gloucester and Bristol</i> ... Chs. John Ellicott, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1819
1868	<i>Hereford</i> ..... James Atlay, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1817
1869	<i>Lincoln</i> ..... Chr. Wordsworth, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1807
1849	<i>Llandaff</i> ..... Alfred Ollivant, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1798
1869	<i>London</i> ..... Rt. Hon. J. Jackson, <i>D.D.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1811

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*BISHOPS—*Continued.*

Apptd.		
1870	<i>Manchester</i> .....	James Fraser, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1818
1857	<i>Norwich</i> .....	Hon. J. T. Pelham, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1811
1869	<i>Oxford</i> .....	J. F. Mackarness, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1820
1868	<i>Peterborough</i> .....	Wm. Con. Magee, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1821
1857	<i>Ripon</i> .....	Robt. Bickersteth, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1816
1877	<i>St. Albans</i> .....	T. L. Claughton, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1808
1870	<i>St. Asaph</i> .....	Joshua Hughes, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1807
1874	<i>St. David's</i> .....	Wm. Basil Jones, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1822
1869	<i>Salisbury</i> .....	George Moberly, D.C.L., <i>b.</i> 1803
1873	<i>Winchester</i> .....	Ed. Har. Browne, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1811
1861	<i>Worcester</i> .....	Henry Philpott, D.D., <i>b.</i> 1807

## BARONS.

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Abercromby</i> ..	George Ra. v Abercromby, <i>b.</i> 1838	Hon. J. Abercromby, <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Aberdare</i> ...	Henry Austan Bruce, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. H. C. Bruce, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Abinger</i> .....	Wm. Fredk. Scarlett, c.b., <i>b.</i> 1826	Hon. J. Y. M. Scarlett, <i>b.</i> 1871
<i>Acton</i> .....	J. Emerich E. Dalberg-Acton, <i>b.</i> 1834	Hon. R. M. D. Acton, <i>b.</i> 1870
<i>Alington</i> ...	Henry Gerard Sturt, <i>b.</i> 1825	Hon. Humphrey Sturt, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Amherst</i> ...	William Archer Amherst, <i>b.</i> 1836	
<i>Amphill</i> ...	Odo Wm. Leopold Russell, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. O. A. V. Russell, <i>b.</i> 1869
<i>Annaly</i> .....	Luke White, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. Luke White, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Ardilaun</i> ...	Arthur Edwd. Guinness, <i>b.</i> 1814	(None)
<i>Arundell of Wardour</i> ..	John Francis Arundell, <i>b.</i> 1831	Hon. E. A. Arundell, <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Ashburton</i> ...	Alexander Hugh Baring, <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. F. D. E. Baring, <i>b.</i> 1866
<i>Ashford</i> (Vt. Bury)	W. C. Keppel, K.C.M.G., <i>b.</i> 1832	Hon. A. A. C. Keppel, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Auckland</i> ...	William George Eden, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. W. M. Eden, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Aveland</i> .....	G. H. Heathcote-Drummond-Wil- loughby, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. G. Willoughby, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Bagot</i> .....	William Bagot, <i>b.</i> 1811	Hon. Wm. Bagot, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Balinhard</i> ...	James Carnegie, K.T. ( <i>Scotch Earl</i> , <i>Southesk</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1827	Lord Carnegie, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Barrogill</i> ...	George Philips Alexander Sinclair ( <i>Scotch Earl, Caithness</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1858	(None)
<i>Bateman</i> ...	Wm. B. Bateman-Hanbury, <i>b.</i> 1826	Hon. W. S. B. Hanbury, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Beaumont</i> ...	Henry Stapleton, <i>b.</i> 1848	Hon. M. Stapleton, <i>b.</i> 1850
<i>Belper</i> .....	Henry Strutt, <i>b.</i> 1840	Hon. Wm. Strutt, <i>b.</i> 1875
<i>Berwick</i> .....	William Noel Noel-Hill, <i>b.</i> 1802	Rd. H. Noel-Hill, <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Blackford</i> ...	Frederic Rogers, K.C.M.G., <i>b.</i> 1811	(None)
<i>Blackburn</i> ...	Colin Blackburn, <i>b.</i> 1813. Life Peerage	
<i>Bolton</i> .....	William H. Orde-Powlett, <i>b.</i> 1818	Hon. W. T. O. Powlett, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Boston</i> .....	George Florence Irby, <i>b.</i> 1860	Hon. Cecil S. Irby, <i>b.</i> 1862

## THE HOUSE OF LORDS—Continued.

## BARONS—Continued.

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Botreaux</i> ...	Charles Edwd. H. Abney-Hastings ( <i>Scotch Earl, Loudoun</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. P. A. -Hastings, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Boyle</i> .....	R. E. St. Lawrence Boyle, <i>x.p.</i> , ( <i>Irish Earl, Cork and Orrery</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1829	Visct. Dungarvan, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Brabourne</i> ...	E. H. Knatchbull-Hugessen, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. E. Knatchbull-Huges- sen, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Brancepeth</i>	Gust. R. Hamilton-Russell, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. G. H. Russell, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Braybrooke</i> ..	Charles Cornwallis Neville, <i>b.</i> 1823	Hon. & Rev. L. Neville, <i>b.</i> 1827
<i>Braye</i> .....	A. T. Townshend Verney-Cave, <i>b.</i> 1849	Hn. A. Verney-Cave, <i>b.</i> 1874
<i>Breadalbane</i> .	Gavin Campbell, <i>b.</i> 1851	Hon. Ivan Campbell, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Brodrick</i> ...	William Brodrick ( <i>Irish Viscount, Middleton</i> ) <i>b.</i> 1830	Hn. W. Brodrick, <i>m.p.</i> <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Brougham and Vaux</i> .	William Brougham, <i>b.</i> 1795	Hon. H. C. Brougham, <i>b.</i> 1836
<i>Byron</i> .....	Geo. Frederick Wm. Byron, <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. F. E. C. Byron, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Calthorpe</i> ...	F. H. W. Gough-Calthorpe, <i>b.</i> 1826	Hon. A. G. Calthorpe, <i>b.</i> 1829
<i>Camoy</i> .....	Francis Robert Stonor, <i>b.</i> 1856	Hn. H. Julian Stonor, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Carew</i> .....	Robert Shapland George Julian Carew, <i>b.</i> 1860	Hon. G. P. J. Carew, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Carrington</i> ...	Charles Robert Carington, <i>b.</i> 1843	Hn. W. H. P. Carington, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Carleton</i> .....	Henry Bentinck Boyle ( <i>Irish Earl, Shannon</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1833	Viscount Boyle, <i>b.</i> 1860
<i>Carlingford</i> ..	C. S. Parkinson-Fortescue, <i>b.</i> 1823	(None)
<i>Carysfort</i> ...	William Proby, <i>x.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1836	(None)
<i>Castletown</i> ...	J. Wilson Fitz-Patrick, <i>b.</i> 1809	Hn. B. E. Barnaby, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Charlemont</i> ..	J. Molyneux Caulfeild, <i>x.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1820	E. H. Caulfeild, <i>b.</i> 1807
<i>Chaworth</i> ...	Wm. Brabazon, ( <i>I. E. Meath</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1803	Lord Brabazon, <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Chelmsford</i> ..	Fred. A. Thesiger, <i>c.e.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. F. J. Thesiger, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Chesham</i> ...	William G. Cavendish, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. C. C. W. Cavendish, <i>b.</i> 1850
<i>Churhill</i> ...	Francis George Spencer, <i>b.</i> 1802	Hon. Victor Spencer, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Churchton</i> ...	John Yarde Buller, <i>b.</i> 1846	Hon. J. R. Lopes, <i>b.</i> 1873
<i>Clanbrassill</i> .	John Strange Jocelyn ( <i>Irish Earl Roden</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1823	Hon. W. N. Jocelyn, <i>b.</i> 1832
<i>Clanwilliam</i> .	Richard James Meade, <i>c.e.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1832	Lord Gilford, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Clements</i> ...	R. B. Clements, ( <i>I. E. Leitrim</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1847	Lord Clements, <i>b.</i> 1879
<i>Clermont</i> ...	Thomas Fortescue, <i>b.</i> 1815	(None)
<i>Clifford of Chudleigh</i> .	Lewis H. Hugh Clifford, <i>b.</i> 1851	Hon. W. H. Clifford, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Clifton</i> .....	J. S. Bligh ( <i>Ir. E., Darnley</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1827	Lord Clifton, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Clinton</i> .....	C. H. Rolle H. S. F. Trefusis, <i>b.</i> 1834	Hon. C. Trefusis, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Cloncurry</i> ...	V. Lawless, <i>b.</i> 1840	Hon. E. Lawless, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Colchester</i> ...	Reginald Chs. Edw. Abbot, <i>b.</i> 1842	(None)
<i>Coleridge</i> ...	John Duke Coleridge, <i>b.</i> 1821	Hon. B. J. Coleridge, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Congleton</i> ...	John Vesey Parnell, <i>b.</i> 1805	Hon. H. W. Parnell, <i>b.</i> 1809

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*BARONS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Conyers</i> .....	Sackville George Lane-Fox, <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. M. A. Mary, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Cottesloe</i> .....	T. F. Fremantle, <i>b.</i> 1798	Hon. T. F. Fremantle, <i>b.</i> 1830
<i>Crewe</i> .....	Hungerford Crewe, <i>b.</i> 1812	(None)
<i>Dacre</i> .....	Thos. Crosbie Wm. Trevor, <i>b.</i> 1808	Rt. Hon. Sir H. Brand, <i>b.</i> 1814
<i>De Clifford</i> ..	Edward Southwall Russell, <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. C. S. Russell, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>De Freyne</i> ..	Arthur French, <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. A. R. French, <i>b.</i> 1879
<i>Delamere</i> ...	Hugh Cholmondeley, <i>b.</i> 1812	Hn. H. Cholmondeley, <i>b.</i> 1870
<i>De L'Isle</i> <i>and Dudley</i>	Philip Sidney, <i>b.</i> 1828	Hon. P. Sidney, <i>b.</i> 1853
<i>De Mauley</i> ..	C. F. Ashley C. Ponsonby, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. W. A. Webb, <i>b.</i> 1843
<i>Denman</i> .....	Thomas Aitchison-Denman, <i>b.</i> 1805	Hon. R. Denman, <i>b.</i> 1814
<i>De Ros</i> .....	Dudley C. Fitzgerald-de-Ros, <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. My. Frances, <i>b.</i> 1853
<i>Derwent</i> .....	Harcourt V. Bempde-Johnstone, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. F. Johnstone, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>De Saumarez</i>	John St. Vincent Saumarez, <i>b.</i> 1806	Hon. J. St. Vincent, <i>b.</i> 1843
<i>De Tabley</i> ...	George Warren, <i>b.</i> 1811	Hon. J. B. Leicester, <i>b.</i> 1835
<i>Digby</i> .....	Edward St. Vincent Digby, <i>b.</i> 1809	Hon. E. H. T. Digby, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Donington</i> ...	Chas. Fred. Abney-Hastings, <i>b.</i> 1822	Earl of Loudoun, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Dorchester</i> ...	Dudley Wilmot Carleton, <i>b.</i> 1822	(None)
<i>Dormer</i> .....	John Baptiste Jsph. Dormer, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. J. C. Dormer, <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Douglas</i> .....	C. A. Home-Douglas, <i>b.</i> 1834	Lord Dunglass, <i>b.</i> 1873
<i>Dummore</i> .....	Charles Adolphus Murray, <i>b.</i> 1841	Visct. Fincastle, <i>b.</i> 1871
<i>Dunning</i> ...	J. R. Rollo ( <i>Sc. Bar., Rollo</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. W. C. W. Rollo, <i>b.</i> 1860
<i>Dynevor</i> ..	Arthur de Cardonnel Rice, <i>b.</i> 1836	Hon. Walter Rice, <i>b.</i> 1873
<i>Ebury</i> .....	Robert Grosvenor, <i>b.</i> 1801	Hn. R. W. Grosvenor, <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Egerton of</i> <i>Tatton</i> ...	William Tatton Egerton, <i>b.</i> 1806	Hon. W. Egerton, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1832
<i>Elgin</i> .....	V. A. Bruce, <i>b.</i> 1849	Lord — Bruce, <i>b.</i> 1881
<i>Ellenborough</i>	Charles Edmund Law, <i>b.</i> 1820	Hon. C. T. H. Law, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Emly</i> .....	William Monsell, <i>b.</i> 1812	Hon. G. Monsell, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Erskine</i> .....	John Cadwallader Erskine, <i>b.</i> 1805	Hon. W. M. Erskine, <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Ettrick</i> .....	Francis Napier, K.T., <i>b.</i> 1819	Hon. W. J. G. Napier, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Fermanagh</i> ..	John Crichton, M.P. ( <i>Irish Earl, Erne</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1802	Visct. Crichton, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Fingall</i> .....	A. J. Plunkett ( <i>I. E., Fingall</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1859	Hon. W. M. Plunkett, <i>b.</i> 1824
<i>Fisherwick</i> ..	George Hamilton Chichester, K.P., G.C.H. ( <i>Ir. Marq., Donegal</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1797	Ld. E. Chichester, <i>b.</i> 1799
<i>Fitzhardinge</i>	F. W. Fitzhardinge Berkeley, <i>b.</i> 1826	Hon. C. P. Berkeley, <i>b.</i> 1830
<i>Foley</i> .....	Henry Thomas Foley, <i>b.</i> 1850	Hon. Fitz. Foley, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Forester</i> .....	George Cecil Weld Forester, <i>b.</i> 1807	Hn. & R. V. O. Forester, <i>b.</i> 1813
<i>Foxford</i> .....	W. H. J. C. Pery ( <i>Irish Earl, Limerick</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1840	Visct. Glentworth, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Gage</i> .....	Henry C. Gage ( <i>Ir. Visct., Gage</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1854	Hon. E. T. Gage, C.B., <i>b.</i> 1825
<i>Gardner</i> .....	A. L. Gardner, ( <i>I. Bar., Gardner</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1810]	Stewart Gardner, <i>b.</i> 1812

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*BARONS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Gerard</i> .....	Robert Tolver Gerard, <i>b.</i> 1808	Hon. W. C. Gerard, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Gifford</i> .....	Edric Fredk. Gifford, <i>v.c.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1849	Hon. E. B. Gifford, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Gormanston</i> ..	Jenico Wm. Joseph Preston, <i>b.</i> 1837	Hon. J. E. J. Preston, <i>b.</i> 1879
<i>Granard</i> ...	Geo. Arthur Hastings Forbes, <i>k.p.</i> ( <i>Irish Earl, Granard</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1833	Viscount Forbes, <i>b.</i> 1874
<i>Grantley</i> ...	John Richd. Brinsley Norton, <i>b.</i> 1855	Maj. C. G. Norton, <i>b.</i> 1835
<i>Greville</i> .....	F. S. Greville-Nugent, <i>b.</i> 1821	Hn. A. F. W. Greville, <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Grey de</i> <i>Radcliffe</i> ...	A. E. Holland G. Egerton, <i>b.</i> 1833	(None)
<i>Grinstead</i> ...	W. W. Cole ( <i>Ir. E., Enniskillen</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1807	Viscount Cole, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Gwydyr</i> .....	Peter Robert Burrell, <i>b.</i> 1810	Hon. W. M. Burrell, <i>b.</i> 1841
<i>Haldon</i> .....	Lawrence Palk, <i>b.</i> 1818	Hn. Lawrence Hesketh Palk,
<i>Hammond</i> ...	Edmund Hammond, <i>b.</i> 1802	(None) [ <i>b.</i> 1846]
<i>Hampton</i> ...	John Slaney Pakington, <i>b.</i> 1826	Hon. H. P. M. Pakington, <i>b.</i> 1848
<i>Hare</i> .....	W. Hare, <i>k.p.</i> ( <i>I.E., Listowel</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1833	Visct. Ennismore, <i>b.</i> 1866
<i>Harlech</i> .....	Wm. Richard Ormsby-Gore, <i>b.</i> 1819	Hon. G. R. Charles, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Harris</i> .....	Geo. Robert Canning Harris, <i>b.</i> 1851	Hon. R. H. Temple, <i>b.</i> 1839
<i>Hartismere</i> ..	John Major Henniker-Major ( <i>Irish</i> <i>Baron, Henniker</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1842	Hon. Albt. E. Major, <i>b.</i> 1865
<i>Hastings</i> ...	George Manners Astley, <i>b.</i> 1857	Hon. H. J. Astley, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Hatherton</i> ...	Edward Richard Littleton, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hn. E. G. P. Littleton, <i>b.</i> 1842
<i>Hawke</i> .....	Rev. Edwd. H. Julius Hawke, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. M. B. Hawke, <i>b.</i> 1860
<i>Hay</i> .....	George Hay ( <i>Sc. E., Kinnoul</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1827	Viscount Dupplin, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Heytesbury</i> ..	W. H. Ashe A'Court-Holmes, <i>b.</i> 1809	Hon. Wm. Leonard, <i>b.</i> 1835
<i>Hopetoun</i> ...	J. A. L. Hope ( <i>Sc. E., Hopetoun</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1860	Hon. Chas. A. Hope, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Hothfield</i> ...	Henry James Tufton, <i>b.</i> 1844	Hn. Jno. S. R. Tufton, <i>b.</i> 1873
<i>Houghton</i> ...	Rd. Monckton Milnes, <i>b.</i> 1809	Hon. Robt. Milnes, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Howard de</i> <i>Walden</i> ...	F. G. Ellis, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hn. & Rev. W. C. Ellis, <i>b.</i> 1835
<i>Howard of</i> <i>Glossop</i> ...	E. G. Fitzalan-Howard, <i>b.</i> 1818	Hon. Frs. E. Howard, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Howth</i> .. ...	Wm. Ulick Tristram St. Lawrence, <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. T. St. Lawrence, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Hunsdon</i> ...	Lucius Bentinck Cary, <i>o.c.h.</i> ( <i>Scotch</i> <i>Viscount, Falkland</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1803	Adm. Hon. P. P. Cary, <i>b.</i> 1806
<i>Hylton</i> .....	Hedworth Hylton Jolliffe, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. Hylton Jolliffe, <i>b.</i> 1862
<i>Keane</i> .....	Edw. A. Wellington Keane, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. John Keane, <i>b.</i> 1816
<i>Kenlis</i> .....	T. Taylour ( <i>I. Mg., Headfort</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1822	Earl of Bective, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1844
<i>Kenmare</i> ...	Valentine Aug. Browne, <i>k.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1825	Visct. Castlerosse, <i>b.</i> 1860
<i>Kenry</i> .....	Windham Thos. Wyndham-Quin, <i>k.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1841	Windham H. Quin, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Kenyon</i> .....	Lloyd Kenyon, <i>b.</i> 1864	Hon. Geo. T. Kenyon, <i>b.</i> 1840
<i>Kerr</i> .....	Schomberg Henry Kerr, <i>k.t.</i> ( <i>Scotch</i> <i>Marq., Lothian</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1833	Earl of Ancrum, <i>b.</i> 1867

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*BARONS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Kesteven</i> ...	John Henry Trollope, <i>b.</i> 1851	Hon. R. C. Trollope, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Kilmarnock</i> ...	Wm. H. Hay ( <i>Sc. E., Erroll</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1823	Lord Kilmarnock, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Kinnaird</i> ...	A. F. Kinnaird, <i>b.</i> 1814	Hon. A. F. Kinnaird, <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Kintore</i> .....	Algernon H. Thomond Keith-Falconer, <i>b.</i> 1852	Lord Inverurie, <i>b.</i> 1877
<i>Lamington</i> ...	Alex. Dundas Ross Baillie-Cochrane, <i>b.</i> 1816	Hon. W. C. A. N. Baillie-Cochrane, <i>b.</i> 1860
<i>Lawrence</i> ...	John Hamilton Lawrence, <i>b.</i> 1846	Hon. A. G. Lawrence, <i>b.</i> 1878
<i>Leconfield</i> ...	Henry Wyndham, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. G. O'B. Wyndham, <i>b.</i> 1868
<i>Leigh</i> .....	William Henry Leigh, <i>b.</i> 1824	Hon. G. Leigh, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Lilford</i> .....	Thomas Lyttelton Powys, <i>b.</i> 1833	Hon. T. A. Powys, <i>b.</i> 1861
<i>Lismore</i> .....	Geo. Ponsonby O'Callaghan, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. G. C. Gerald, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Loftus</i> .....	J. H. W. G. Loftus ( <i>I. Marq., Ely</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1849	John H. Loftus, <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Londesboro'</i> ...	William H. Forester Denison, <i>b.</i> 1834	Hn. W. F. H. Denison, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Lovat</i> .....	S. Fraser ( <i>Sc. Bar., Lovat</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1828	Hon. S. J. Fraser, <i>b.</i> 1871
<i>Lovel and Holland</i> ...	C. G. Perceval ( <i>Ir. E., Egmont</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1845	Hn. Aug. G. Perceval, <i>b.</i> 1829
<i>Lurgan</i> .....	Charles Brownlow, <i>K.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1831	Hon. W. Brownlow, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Lyttelton</i> ...	Charles George Lyttelton, <i>b.</i> 1842	Hon. — Lyttelton, <i>b.</i> 1881
<i>Lyveden</i> .....	FitzPatrick Henry Vernon, <i>b.</i> 1824	Hn. & Rev. Courtenay, <i>b.</i> 1828
<i>Manners</i> ...	John Thomas Manners, <i>b.</i> 1852	Hon. A. Manners, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Meldrum</i> ...	C. Gordon ( <i>Sc. Mar., Huntly</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1847	Lord D. Gordon, <i>M.P.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1851
<i>Mendip</i> .....	H. G. Agar-Ellis ( <i>Ir. Viset., Clifden</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1863	Hon. L. Agar-Ellis, <i>b.</i> 1829
<i>Meredyth</i> ...	J. H. G. Meredyth Somerville, <i>b.</i> 1865	(None)
<i>Methuen</i> .....	Frederick H. Paul Methuen, <i>b.</i> 1818	Hon. P. S. Methuen, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Middleton</i> ...	Digby W. Bayard Willoughby, <i>b.</i> 1844	Hon. Godfrey E. P., <i>b.</i> 1847
<i>Minster</i> .....	George Henry Conyngham ( <i>Irish Marq., Conyngham</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1825	E. of Mount Charles, <i>b.</i> 1857
<i>Monck</i> .....	C. S. Monck, <i>G.C.M.G.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1819	Hon. H. P. Monck, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Moncreiff</i> ...	James Moncreiff, <i>b.</i> 1811	Hon. Henry Jas. M., <i>b.</i> 1840
<i>Monson</i> .....	William John Monson, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. Debonnaire J., <i>b.</i> 1830
<i>Monteagle</i> ...	Geo. J. Browne ( <i>I. M., Sligo</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1820	Lord J. T. Browne, <i>b.</i> 1824
<i>Monteagle of Brandon</i> ...	Thomas Spring-Rice, <i>b.</i> 1849	Hon. Stephen Edm., <i>b.</i> 1877
<i>Moore</i> ...	Henry Francis Seymour Moore, <i>K.P.</i> ( <i>Ir. Marq., Drogheda</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1825	(None)
<i>Mostyn</i> .....	Ed. Mostyn Lloyd-Mostyn, <i>b.</i> 1795	Hon. Roger Mostyn, <i>b.</i> 1831
<i>Mount-Temple</i> ...	Wm. F. Cowper-Temple, <i>b.</i> 1811	(None)
<i>Mowbray and Stourton</i> ...	Alfred Joseph Stourton, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. C. B. Stourton, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Napier of Magdala</i> ...	R. C. Napier, <i>G.C.B., G.C.S.I.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1810	Hon. Rbt. W. Napier, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Northwick</i> ...	George Rushout, <i>b.</i> 1811	(None)

THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*BARONS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
Norton .....	Chs. B. Adderley, K.C.M.G., <i>b.</i> 1814	Hon. Charles Leigh, <i>b.</i> 1846
O'Hagan ...	Thomas O'Hagan, K.P., <i>b.</i> 1812	Hon. T. T. O'Hagan, <i>b.</i> 1878
O'Neill .....	Rev. William O'Neill, <i>b.</i> 1813	Hon. Edw. O'Neill, <i>b.</i> 1839
Oriel .....	Clotworthy John Eyre Skeffington ( <i>Ir. Visct., Massereene</i> ) <i>b.</i> 1842	Hon. Oriel J. C., <i>b.</i> 1871
Ormathwaite	Arthur Walsh, <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. A. H. J. Walsh, <i>b.</i> 1859
Ormonde ...	James E. W. Theobald Butler ( <i>Irish</i> <i>Marq., Ormonde</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1844	Lord James Butler, <i>b.</i> 1842
Overstone ...	Samuel Jones Loyd, <i>b.</i> 1796	(None)
Ozenfoord ...	John Hamilton Dalrymple, K.T. ( <i>Scotch Earl, Stair</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1819	Visct. Dalrymple, <i>b.</i> 1843
Penrhyn ...	E. G. Douglas-Pennant, <i>b.</i> 1800	Hon. G. D. Pennant, <i>b.</i> 1836
Penzance ...	James Plaisted Wilde, <i>b.</i> 1816	(None)
Petre .....	William Bernard Petre, <i>b.</i> 1817	Hon. Rev. W. J. Petre, <i>b.</i> 1847
Plunket .....	Most Rev. W. C. Plunket (Bishop of Meath) <i>b.</i> 1828	Hon. W. L. Plunket, <i>b.</i> 1864
Poltimore ...	A. F. G. Warwick Bampfylde, <i>b.</i> 1837	Hon. Coplestone B., <i>b.</i> 1859
Ponsonby ...	F. G. Brabazon Ponsonby, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. W. W. Ponsonby, <i>b.</i> 1821
Raglan .....	Rd. Hy. Fitzroy Somerset, <i>b.</i> 1817	Hon. Geo. F. Henry, <i>b.</i> 1857
Ramsay .....	John William Ramsay, K.T. ( <i>Scotch</i> <i>Earl, Dalhousie</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1847	Lord Ramsay, <i>b.</i> 1878
Ranfurly ...	Uchter John Mark Knox ( <i>Ir. Earl,</i> <i>Ranfurly</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1856	Hon. Wm. S. Knox, <i>b.</i> 1826
Rayleigh ...	John William Strutt, <i>b.</i> 1842	Hon. Robt. J. Strutt, <i>b.</i> 1875
Reay .....	D. J. Mackay ( <i>Sc. B., Reay</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1839	(None)
Ribblesdale ...	Thomas Lister, <i>b.</i> 1854	Hon. Thos. Lister, <i>b.</i> 1878
Robartes ...	Thos. Jas. Agar-Robartes, <i>b.</i> 1808	Hon. T. C. Robartes, M.P., <i>b.</i> 1844
Rodney .....	G. B. Harley Dennett Rodney, <i>b.</i> 1857	Hon. R. W. Rodney, <i>b.</i> 1858
Romilly .....	William Romilly, <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. J. G. Romilly, <i>b.</i> 1866
Rosebery ...	Archibald Philip Primrose, ( <i>Scotch</i> <i>Earl, Rosebery</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1847	Hon. Everard H., <i>b.</i> 1848
Ross .....	G. F. Boyle ( <i>Sc. E., Glasgow</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1825	Capt. Dav. Boyle, M.N., <i>b.</i> 1835
Rossmore ...	Derrick Warner William Westenra ( <i>Irish Baron, Rossmore</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1853	Hon. P. C. Westenra, <i>b.</i> 1855
Rowton .....	Montagu Wm. Lowry-Corry, C.B., <i>b.</i> 1838	(None)
Sackville ...	Mortimer Sackville-West, <i>b.</i> 1820	[ <i>b.</i> 1827 Hon. L. S. Sackville-West,
St. John of		
Bletso .....	St. Andrew St. John, <i>b.</i> 1840	Hon. B. Moubray, <i>b.</i> 1844
St. Leonards.	Edward Burtenshaw Sugden, <i>b.</i> 1847	Hon. Hen. Frank, S., <i>b.</i> 1850
Salterford ..	James George Henry Stopford ( <i>Irish</i> <i>Earl, Courtown</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1823	Viscount Stopford, <i>b.</i> 1853
Sandhurst ...	William Mansfield, <i>b.</i> 1855	Hon. J. W. Mansfield, <i>b.</i> 1857
Sandys .....	Aug. Fredk. Arthur Sandys, <i>b.</i> 1840	Hon. Marcus W.G., <i>b.</i> 1849
Saye and Sele	Ven. F. B. T. Wykeham-Fiennes, <i>b.</i> 1799	Hon. John Fiennes, <i>b.</i> 1830

## THE HOUSE OF LORDS—Continued.

## BARONS—Continued.

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Scarsdale</i> ...	Rev. Alf. N. Holden Curzon, <i>b.</i> 1831	Hon. Geo. N. Curzon, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Seaton</i> .....	James Colborne, <i>b.</i> 1815	Hon. Reginald J. U., <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Sefton</i> .....	William Philip Molyneux, <i>b.</i> 1835	Visct. Molyneux, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Selborne</i> .....	Roundell Palmer, <i>b.</i> 1812	Hon. W. Waldegrave, <i>b.</i> 1859
<i>Sheffield</i> .....	H. N. Holroyd ( <i>Ir. E., Sheffield</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1832	Hon. D. E. Holroyd, <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Sherborne</i> .....	James Henry Legge Dutton, <i>b.</i> 1804	Hon. Edw. L. Dutton, <i>b.</i> 1831
<i>Shute</i> .....	George William Barrington ( <i>Irish Viscount, Barrington</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1824	Hon. P. Barrington, <i>b.</i> 1825
<i>Silchester</i> ...	William Lygon Pakenham, <i>c. c. b.</i> ( <i>Irish Earl, Longford</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1819	Lord Pakenham, <i>b.</i> 1864
<i>Skene</i> .....	Alex. W. Geo. Duff, <i>k. t.</i> ( <i>Irish Earl, Fife</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1849	Hon. G. Skene Duff, <i>b.</i> 1816
<i>Somerhill</i> ...	Hubert De Burgh-Canning ( <i>Irish Marquis, Clanricarde</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1832	(None)
<i>Somerton</i> ...	James Charles H. W. E. Agar ( <i>Irish Earl, Normanton</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1818	Visct. Somerton, <i>b.</i> 1858
<i>Southampton</i> .....	Charles Henry Fitzroy, <i>b.</i> 1867	Hon. Edw. Algernon, <i>b.</i> 1869
<i>Stafford</i> .....	H. V. Stafford Jerningham, <i>b.</i> 1802	A. F. F. Jerningham, <i>b.</i> 1830
<i>Stanley of Alderley</i> ...	Henry Edward John Stanley, <i>b.</i> 1827	Hon. E. Lyulph Stanley, [M.P., <i>b.</i> 1839]
<i>Stewart of Garlies</i> ...	A. P. Stewart ( <i>S. E., Galloway</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. R. H. Stewart, <i>b.</i> 1836
<i>Strafford</i> ...	G. H. C. Byng, <i>b.</i> 1830	(None)
<i>Stratheden</i> ...	Wm. Frederick Campbell, <i>b.</i> 1824	Hon. Hallyburton Camp- (None) [bell, <i>b.</i> 1829]
<i>Strathnairn</i> .....	Hugh Hy. Rose, <i>c. c. b., g. c. s. i.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1803	Hn. J. Grant-Ogilvie, <i>b.</i> 1817
<i>Strathpey</i> ...	Ian Charles Grant-Ogilvie ( <i>Scotch Earl, Seafield</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1851	
<i>Stuart of Castle Stuart</i> .....	G. Stuart ( <i>S. E., Moray</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1814	Edmund A. Stuart, <i>b.</i> 1840
<i>Sudeley</i> .....	C. D. R. Hanbury-Tracy, <i>b.</i> 1840	Hon. Wm. C. Fredk., <i>b.</i> 1870
<i>Suffield</i> .....	Charles Harbord, <i>k. c. b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. Chas. Harbord, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Sunbridge</i> ...	G. D. Glassell Campbell, <i>k. t.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1823	Marquis of Lorne, <i>b.</i> 1845
<i>Talbot de Malahide</i> ..	J. Talbot, <i>b.</i> 1805	Hon. Richd. Wogan, <i>b.</i> 1846
<i>Templemore</i> ..	Henry Spencer Chichester, <i>b.</i> 1821	Hon. Arthur Henry, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Tenterden</i> ...	Chas. S. Aubrey Abbott, <i>k. c. b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1834	Hon. Chas. S. Henry, <i>b.</i> 1865
<i>Teynham</i> ...	George Henry Roper-Curzon, <i>b.</i> 1798	Hon. Henry George, <i>b.</i> 1822
<i>Thurlow</i> ...	T. J. Hovell-Thurlow-Cumming-Bruce, <i>b.</i> 1838	Hon. Jas. Fredk., <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Tollemache</i> ..	John Tollemache, <i>b.</i> 1805	Hon. W. F., M.P., <i>b.</i> 1832
<i>Tredegar</i> ...	Godfrey Charles Morgan, <i>b.</i> 1830	Hon. F. C., M.P., <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Trevor</i> .....	Arth. Edwin Hill-Trevor, <i>b.</i> 1819	Hn. A. W. Hill-Trevor, <i>b.</i> 1852
<i>Truro</i> .....	Chas. Robert Claude Wilde, <i>b.</i> 1816	Thos. M. M. Wilde, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Tweeddale</i> ..	W. M. May ( <i>Se. M., Tweeddale</i> ) <i>b.</i> 1826	(None) [ <i>b.</i> 1849]
<i>Tweedmouth</i> ..	Dudley Coutts Marjoribanks, <i>b.</i> 1820	Hon. E. Marjoribanks, M.P.,
<i>Tyrone</i> .....	J. H. de la Poer Beresford, <i>k. p.</i> ( <i>Irish Marquis, Waterford</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1844	Earl of Tyrone, <i>b.</i> 1875



THE HOUSE OF LORDS—*Continued.*BARONS—*Continued.*

—	Family Name.	Eldest Son or Heir.
<i>Vaux of Harrowden</i>	G. Mostyn, <i>b.</i> 1804	Hon. Geo. C. Mostyn, <i>b.</i> 1830
<i>Vernon</i> .....	Aug. Hy. Venables-Vernon, <i>b.</i> 1829	Hon. Geo. W. Henry, <i>b.</i> 1854
<i>Vivian</i> .....	Charles Crespigny Vivian, <i>b.</i> 1808	Hn. H. C. Vivian, <i>c.b.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1834
<i>Walsingham</i>	Thomas de Grey, <i>b.</i> 1843	Hon. J. A. de Grey, <i>b.</i> 1849
<i>Watson</i> .....	Wm. Watson, <i>b.</i> 1828. Life Peerage	(None)
<i>Waveney</i> ...	Robt. Alex. Shafto Adair, <i>b.</i> 1811	Lord Elcho, <i>m.p.</i> , <i>b.</i> 1818
<i>Wemyss</i> ...	F. W. C. Douglas ( <i>S. E., Wemyss</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1796	
<i>Wenlock</i> ...	Beilby Lawley, <i>b.</i> 1849	Hon. R. T. Lawley, <i>b.</i> 1856
<i>Wentworth</i> ( <i>V. Ockham</i> )	R. G. Noel-Milbanke, <i>b.</i> 1839	Hon. Ada Mary, <i>b.</i> 1871
<i>Westbury</i> ...	R. Luttrell Pilkington Bethell, <i>b.</i> 1852	Hon. E. A. Bethell, <i>b.</i> 1855
<i>Wigan</i> .....	James Ludovic Lindsay ( <i>Scotch Earl, Crawford and Balcarras</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1847	Lord Lindsay, <i>b.</i> 1871
<i>Willoughby de Broke</i> ...	Henry Peyto Verney, <i>b.</i> 1844	Hon. Rd. Greville, <i>b.</i> 1869
<i>Wimborne</i> ...	Ivor Bertie Guest, <i>b.</i> 1835	Hon. Ivor C. Guest, <i>b.</i> 1873
<i>Windsor</i> ...	Robert Geo. Windsor-Clive, <i>b.</i> 1857	Co-heiresses, three sisters
<i>Winmarleigh</i>	John Wilson-Patten, <i>b.</i> 1802	John Alfred, <i>b.</i> 1867
<i>Wolverton</i> ...	George Grenfell Glyn, <i>b.</i> 1824	Hon. H. C. Glyn, <i>b.</i> 1829
<i>Worlingham</i>	A. B. S. Acheson, <i>x.p.</i> ( <i>Irish Earl, Gosford</i> ), <i>b.</i> 1841	Viscount Acheson, <i>b.</i> 1877
<i>Wrottesley</i> ...	Arthur Wrottesley, <i>b.</i> 1824	Hon. W. Wrottesley, <i>b.</i> 1863
<i>Wynford</i> ...	Wm. Draper Mortimer Best, <i>b.</i> 1826	Hon. Hen. M. Best, <i>b.</i> 1829
<i>Zouche of Harringworth</i>	Rbt. N. Cecil Geo. Curzon, <i>b.</i> 1851	Hon. Edw. C. Curzon, <i>b.</i> 1812

## SCOTTISH REPRESENTATIVE PEERS.

Earl of Morton	Earl of Selkirk	Lord Elphinstone
Earl of Mar and Kellie	Earl of Dundonald	Lord Blantyre
Earl of Strathmore	Viscount Strathallan	Lord Balfour of Burleigh
Earl of Haddington	Lord Forbes	Lord Colville of Culross
Earl of Leven and Melville	Lord Saltoun	Lord Polwarth.
	Lord Borthwick	

## IRISH REPRESENTATIVE PEERS.

Earl of Lanesborough	Earl of Bandon	Lord Inchiquin
Earl of Milltown	Earl of Rosse	Lord Massy
Earl of Mountcashell	Earl of Bantry	Lord Clonbrock
Earl of Portarlington	Earl of Kilmorey	Lord Crofton
Earl Annesley	Viscount Powerscourt	Lord Ventry
Earl of Erne	Viscount Lifford	Lord Castlemaine
Earl of Clonmell	Viscount Doneraile	Lord Oranmore and Browne
Earl of Lucan	Viscount Hawarden	Lord Dunsandle and Clanconal
Earl of Belmore	Viscount Templetown	
Earl of Caledon	Lord Dunsany	

# THE PARLIAMENTARY CONSTITUENCIES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

THEIR POPULATION, NUMBER OF VOTERS, AND NAMES  
OF REPRESENTATIVES.

## ENGLAND AND WALES.

### I.—COUNTIES AND PARLIAMENTARY DIVISIONS OF COUNTIES.

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
<b>ENGLAND.</b>			
Bedford ...	129,929	7,335	James Howard, Marq. of Tavistock
Berks ...	145,260	8,107	Lt.-Col. R. J. L. Lindsay, K.C.B.; P. Wroughton; J. Walter
Bucks ...	117,823	8,159	Sir E. B. Harvey; Rt. Hon. T. F. Fremantle; Hon. B. C. G. Carington
Cambridge ...	144,593	10,294	Sir H. B. W. Brand, G.C.B., P.C.; J. R. Bulwer, Q.C.; E. Hicks
Chester:			
E. Division ..	104,953	7,177	W. Cunliffe Brooks; W. J. Legh
Mid. Division	135,365	9,433	Hon. W. Egerton; P. E. Warburton
W. Division ...	161,104	12,270	H. J. Tollemache; Hon. W. F. Tollemache.
Cornwall:			
E. Division ...	125,546	9,471	Hon. T. C. Agar-Robartes; W. C. Borlase
W. Division ...	140,958	6,952	Sir J. St. Aubyn, Bt.; A. P. Vivian
Cumberland:			
E. Division ...	72,690	7,928	G. J. Howard; E. S. Howard
W. Division ...	115,168	7,640	D. Ainsworth; Hon. P. S. Wyndham
Derby:			
E. Division ...	139,910	6,271	A. Barnes; Vice-Ad. Hon. F. Egerton
N. Division ...	97,582	7,246	Lord E. Cavendish; J. F. Cheetham
S. Division ...	146,013	8,902	Sir H. Wilmot, Bart.; T. W. Evans
Devon:			
E. Division ...	165,372	10,780	Sir J. H. Kennaway, Bart.; W. H. Walrond
N. Division ...	122,460	9,487	Sir S. H. Northcote, Bart., P.C.; Sir T. D. Acland, Bart.
S. Division ...	98,331	8,329	Sir M. Lopes, Bart.; J. C. Garnier
Dorset ...	137,294	7,478	Hon. W. H. B. Portman; J. Floyer; Hon. E. H. T. Digby
Durham:			
N. Division ...	298,111	13,233	Sir G. Elliot, Bart; C. M. Palmer
S. Division ...	181,304	11,603	J. W. Pease; Hon. F. W. Lambton

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
<b>Essex :</b>			
E. Division ...	123,067	6,822	Capt. J. Round; Lt.-Col. S. B. Ruggles-Brise
S. Division ...	296,290	13,911	T. C. Baring; Col. W. T. Makins
W. Division ...	113,240	5,876	Sir H. J. Selwin-Ibbetson, Bart.; Lord E. Cecil
<b>Gloucester :</b>			
E. Division ...	88,631	8,599	Sir M. H. Beach, Bart., P.C.; J. R. Yorke
W. Division ...	177,509	12,544	Col. R. N. F. Kingscote, C.B.; Lord Moreton
<b>Hereford ...</b>	95,083	9,004	Sir J. R. Bailey, Bart.; M. Bidulph T. Duckham
<b>Hertford ...</b>	194,434	10,186	T. F. Halsey; A. Smith; Hon. H. F. Cowper
<b>Huntingdon ...</b>	50,926	3,927	Capt. W. H. Fellowes; Lord D. W. C. Gordon
<b>Kent :</b>			
E. Division ...	209,249	13,551	A. A. Douglas; E. L. Pemberton
Mid. Division ...	137,637	9,139	Sir W. H. Dyke, Bart.; Sir E. Filmer, Bart.
W. Division ...	208,260	15,764	Sir C. H. Mills, Bart.; Visc. Lewisham
<b>Lancaster :</b>			
N. Division ...	273,417	17,621	Col. F. A. Stanley, P.C.; Maj.-Gen. R. J. Feilden, C.M.G.
N.E. Division ...	238,544	12,964	Marq. of Hartington; F. W. Grafton
S.E. Division ...	534,963	26,841	R. Leake; W. Agnew
S.W. Division ...	482,148	27,181	Sir R. A. Cross, G.C.B., P.C.; Col. J. I. Blackburne
<b>Leicester :</b>			
N. Division ...	109,250	6,796	Lord J. J. R. Manners, G.C.B., P.C.; Maj.-Gen. E. S. Burnaby
S. Division ...	89,417	9,127	T. T. Paget; A. Pell
<b>Lincoln :</b>			
Mid. Division ...	99,689	9,287	H. Chaplin; Hon. E. Stanhope
N. Division ...	122,472	11,061	J. Lowther, P.C.; R. Winn
S. Division ...	121,332	11,250	J. C. Lawrance; Sir W. E. Welby-Gregory, Bart.
<b>Middlesex ...</b>	393,948	33,173	Lord G. F. Hamilton, P.C.; O. E. Coope
<b>Monmouth ...</b>	166,441	8,617	Hon. F. C. Morgan; J. A. Rolls
<b>Norfolk :</b>			
N. Division ...	116,714	6,495	Sir E. H. K. Lacon, Bt.; E. Birkbeck
S. Division ...	113,091	7,454	Sir R. J. Buxton, Bart.; R. T. Gurdon
W. Division ...	108,702	6,807	W. A. Tyssen-Amherst; G. W. P. Bentinck
<b>Northampton :</b>			
N. Division ...	108,954	5,996	Hon. C. R. Spencer; Lord Burghley
S. Division ...	82,091	6,042	Sir R. Knightley, Bart.; P. Phipps

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Northumberland:			
N. Division ...	67,960	4,469	Earl Percy, P.C.; Sir M. W. Ridley, Bt.
S. Division ...	129,576	8,957	A. H. G. Grey; W. B. Beaumont
Nottingham:			
N. Division ...	143,001	7,364	C. G. S. Foljambe; Visc. Galway
S. Division ...	73,302	5,040	G. Storer; T. B. T. Hildyard
Oxford ...	122,054	7,642	Lt.-Col. J. S. North; W. C. Cartwright; Col. E. W. Harcourt
Rutland... ..	21,434	1,763	G. J. Noel, P.C.; G. H. Finch
Salop:			
N. Division ...	119,119	7,764	Visc. Newport; S. Leighton
S. Division ...	68,420	5,760	Sir B. Leighton, Bart.; Capt. J. E. Severne
Somerset:			
E. Division ...	118,863	8,487	Sir P. J. W. Miles, Bart.; Lord Brooke
Mid. Division	115,319	8,722	R. H. Paget; W. S. G. Langton
W. Division ...	116,960	9,130	Maj. V. H. Vaughan-Lee; M. F. Bisset
Southampton:			
N. Division ...	141,042	5,973	G. Sclater-Booth, P.C.; W. W. B. Beach
S. Division ...	126,720	10,206	Lord H. J. M. D. Scott; F. Compton
Isle of Wight	64,542	5,044	Hon. A. E. M. Ashley
Stafford:			
E. Division ...	138,824	11,125	M. A. Bass; W. Wiggin
N. Division ...	132,634	11,276	W. Y. Craig; H. T. Davenport
W. Division ...	85,740	11,829	A. S. Hill, Q.C.; F. Monckton
Suffolk:			
E. Division ...	161,869	9,885	Lord Rendleham; Lt.-Col. F. St. J. N. Barne
W. Division ...	121,818	5,621	T. Thornhill; W. Biddell
Surrey:			
E. Division ...	227,208	20,438	W. Grantham, Q.C.; J. Watney
Mid. Division	308,134	23,449	Sir H. W. Peek, Bart.; Sir T. Lawrence, Bart.
W. Division ...	151,408	7,972	G. Cubitt, P.C.; Hon. W. St. J. Brodrick
Sussex:			
E. Division ...	163,364	10,635	G. B. Gregory; M. D. Scott
W. Division ...	62,279	3,881	Sir W. B. Bartelot, Bt.; Earl of March
Warwick:			
N. Division ...	169,270	11,769	C. N. Newdegate; Col. W. B. Davenport
S. Division ...	99,470	6,586	Sir J. E. E. Wilmot, Bart.; Hon. G. H. C. Leigh
Westmorland ...	50,488	5,652	Earl of Bective; Hon. W. Lowther
Wilts:			
N. Division ...	80,313	7,301	W. H. Long; G. T. J. S. Estcourt
S. Division ...	64,760	3,673	Lord H. F. Thynne, P.C.; Visc. Folkestone

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popu- lation.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives,
<b>Worcester :</b>			
E. Division ...	208,348	12,343	W. H. Gladstone; G. W. Hastings
W. Division ..	67,081	6,680	Sir E. Lechmere, Bart.; Lt.-Col. F. W. Knight, C.B.
<b>York :</b>			
East Riding ...	141,461	11,126	C. Sykes; W. H. Harrison-Broadley
N. Riding ...	221,937	20,212	F. A. Milbank; Visc. Helmsley
W. Riding :			
E. Division	303,713	22,194	Sir A. Fairbairn, Kt.; Sir J. W. Ramsden, Bart.
N. Division	301,048	22,315	Sir M. Wilson, Bart.
S. Division	497,568	26,750	Hon. W. H. W. Fitzwilliam; W. H. Leatham
<b>TOTAL, England</b>	<b>12,822,302</b>	<b>862,963</b>	
<b>WALES.</b>			
Anglesey ...	36,722	3,241	Richard Davies
Brecon ...	48,800	4,184	W. Fuller-Maitland
Cardigan ...	58,966	5,024	L. P. Pugh
Carmarthen ...	93,389	8,666	W. R. H. Powell; Visc. Emlyn
Carnarvon ...	90,500	6,976	W. Rathbone [Q.C., P.C.]
Denbigh ...	86,100	7,415	Sir W. W. Wynn, Bt.; G. O. Morgan,
Flint ...	55,153	4,789	Lord R. D. A. Grosvenor, P.C.
Glamorgan ...	234,115	12,889	H. H. Vivian; C. R. M. Talbot
Merioneth ...	54,793	3,836	S. Holland
Montgomery ...	45,756	5,270	S. Rendel
Pembroke ...	55,019	5,219	W. Davies
Radnor ...	16,888	2,398	Sir R. Green-Price, Bart.
<b>TOTAL, Wales ...</b>	<b>876,191</b>	<b>69,897</b>	
<b>TOTAL for Coun- ties, &amp;c., Eng- land and Wales)</b>	<b>13,698,493</b>	<b>932,860</b>	

## II.—CITIES AND BOROUGHES.

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
<b>ENGLAND.</b>			
Abingdon ...	6,608	876	John C. Clarke
Andover ...	5,871	869	Francis M. Buxton
Ashton-under- Lyne ...	43,389	5,893	Hugh Mason
Aylesbury ...	28,899	4,440	Sir N. M. de Rothschild, Bart.; W. E. Russell

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popu- lation.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Banbury ...	12,072	1,873	B. Samuelson
Barnstaple ...	12,494	1,785	Sir R. W. Carden, Kt.; Viscount Lymington
Bath ...	53,761	6,017	Sir A. D. Hayter, Bt.; E. B. Wodehouse
Bedford ...	19,532	2,601	S. Whitbread; C. Magniac
Berwick-on-Tweed	13,995	1,989	H. E. H. Jerningham; Capt. D. Milne-
Bewdley ...	8,677	1,261	E. Baldwin [Home
Birkenhead ...	83,324	9,107	D. Maciver
Birmingham ...	400,757	63,909	P. H. Muntz; John Bright, P.C.; J. Chamberlain P.C.
Blackburn ...	100,618	13,160	W. E. Briggs; W. Coddington
Bodmin ...	6,866	895	Hon. E. F. Gower
Bolton ...	105,973	14,250	J. K. Cross; J. P. Thomasson
Boston ...	18,867	3,043	
Bradford ...	180,459	27,437	W. E. Forster, P.C.; A. Illingworth
Bridgnorth ...	7,216	1,208	W. H. Foster
Bridport ...	6,790	1,070	C. N. Warton
Brighton ...	128,407	12,657	J. R. Hollond; W. T. Marriott, Q. C.
Bristol ...	206,503	25,744	S. Morley; L. Fry
Buckingham ...	6,859	1,135	Sir H. Verney, Bart.
Burnley ...	63,502	7,414	P. Rylands
Bury (Lancashire)	49,746	6,859	R. N. Philips
Bury St. Edmunds	16,211	2,231	J. A. Hardcastle; E. Greene
Calne ...	5,272	862	Lord E. Fitzmaurice
Cambridge ...	40,882	5,015	W. Fowler; H. Shield, Q.C.
Cambridge Univ.	—	6,250	S. H. Walpole, Q.C., P.C.; A. J. Beresford-Hope, P.C.
Canterbury ...	21,701	3,238	
Carlisle ...	35,866	5,504	R. Ferguson; Sir W. Lawson, Bart.
Chatham ...	46,806	5,641	J. E. Gorst, Q.C.
Chelsea ...	366,516	30,601	Sir C. W. Dilke, Bart.; J. F. B. Firth
Cheltenham ...	46,844	5,134	Baron de Ferrières
Chester ...	40,342	5,804	
Chichester ...	9,652	1,253	Lord H. G. G. Lennox, P.C.
Chippenham ...	6,776	1,015	Sir G. Goldney, Bart.
Christchurch ...	28,537	2,827	H. Davey, J.C.
Cirencester ...	8,431	1,157	Maj. T. W. C. Master
Clitheroe ...	14,463	1,958	Lt. R. Foot
Cockermouth ...	7,189	1,100	E. Waugh
Colchester ...	28,395	3,762	R. K. Causton; W. Willis, Q.C.
Coventry ...	47,366	8,263	H. W. Eaton; W. H. Wills
Cricklade ...	51,956	7,469	M. H. N. S. Maskelyne; Sir D. Góoch, Bart.
Darlington ...	33,426	5,214	T. Fry
Derby ...	77,636	13,167	M. T. Baas; Sir W. G. V. Harcourt, Kt., P.C.
Devizes ...	6,645	921	Sir T. Bateson, Bt.
Devonport ...	63,870	3,917	J. H. Puleston; G. E. Price

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Dewsbury ...	69,531	10,060	Serg. J. Simon
Dorchester ...	7,568	886	W. E. Brymer
Dover ...	28,486	4,326	C. K. Freshfield; Maj. A. G. Dickson
Droitwich ...	9,858	1,445	J. Corbett
Dudley ...	87,407	14,947	H. B. Sheridan
Durham...	15,372	2,390	Sir F. Herschell, Kt., Q.C.; T. C. Thompson
Evesham ...	5,112	821	F. D. Dixon-Hartland
Exeter ...	47,098	7,562	E. Johnson; H. S. Northcote, C.B.
Eye ...	6,293	1,020	E. A. Bartlett
Finsbury ...	524,480	44,166	Sir A. Lusk, Bt.; W. T. M'C. Torrens
Frome ...	9,376	1,396	H. B. Samuelson
Gateshead ...	65,873	11,685	W. H. James
Gloucester ...	36,552	5,320	C. J. Monk
Grantham ...	17,345	2,383	J. W. Mellor, Q.C.; C. S. Roundell
Gravesend ...	31,355	3,480	Sir S. H. Waterlow, Bart.
Greenwich ...	206,651	22,737	T. W. Boord; Baron H. de Worms
Grimsby, Great	45,373	6,956	E. Heneage
Guildford ...	11,593	1,454	D. R. Onslow
Hackney ...	417,191	45,130	H. Fawcett, P. C.; J. Holms
Halifax ...	73,633	12,055	J. Stansfeld, P.C.; J. D. Hutchinson
Hartlepool, The	46,998	7,017	T. Richardson
Harwich ...	7,810	801	Sir H. W. Tyler, Kt.
Hastings ...	47,735	4,282	C. J. Murray; Sir T. Brassey, K.C.B.
Helston ...	7,919	1,021	W. N. M. St. Aubyn
Hereford ...	19,822	2,821	J. Pulley; R. T. Reid
Hertford ...	8,556	1,101	A. J. Balfour
Horsham ...	9,552	1,263	Sir H. Fletcher, Bart.
Huddersfield ...	87,146	13,268	E. A. Leatham
Huntingdon ...	6,417	1,061	Viscount Hinchinbrook
Hythe ...	28,066	3,080	Sir E. W. Watkin, Bart.
Ipswich ...	50,762	7,585	T. C. Cobbold, C.B.; J. Collings
Kendal ...	13,696	1,957	J. Cropper
Kidderminster ...	25,634	3,774	J. Brinton
King's Lynn ...	18,475	2,849	Sir W. H. B. Ffolkes, Bt.; R. Bourke, P.C.
Kingston-on-Hull	161,519	26,581	C. M. Norwood; C. H. Wilson
Knaresborough	5,000	758	T. Collins
Lambeth ...	498,967	49,040	Sir J. C. Lawrence, Bt.; W. M'Arthur
Launceston ...	5,675	852	Sir H. S. Giffard, Kt., Q.C.
Leeds ...	309,126	49,414	J. Barran; W. L. Jackson; H. J. Gladstone
Leicester ...	122,351	18,977	P. A. Taylor; A. M'Arthur
Leominster ...	6,042	901	J. Rankin
Lewes ...	11,199	1,445	W. L. Christie
Lichfield ...	8,360	1,379	Lt.-Col. T. J. Levett
Lincoln ..	37,312	6,182	C. Seeley; J. H. Palmer, Q.C.

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Liskeard ...	5,591	759	L. H. Courtney
Liverpool ...	552,425	63,221	Viscount Sandon, P.C.; E. Whitley; Lord C. J. Hamilton
London ...	50,526	25,310	W. J. R. Cotton; R. N. Fowler; J. G. Hubbard, P.C.; W. Lawrence
London Univ. ...		2,090	Sir J. Lubbock, Bart.
Ludlow ...	6,663	996	Lt.-Col. Hon. G. H. W. Clive
Lymington ...	5,462	800	Lt.-Col. E. H. Kennard
Macclesfield ...	37,620	6,447	
Maidstone ...	29,662	3,899	Maj. A. H. Ross; Capt. J. E. F. Aylmer
Maldon ...	7,128	1,485	G. Courtauld
Malmesbury ...	6,866	1,057	W. Powell
Malton ...	8,750	1,396	Hon. C. W. W. Fitzwilliam
Manchester ...	393,676	58,712	J. Slagg; Jacob Bright; H. Birley
Marlborough ...	5,180	658	Lord C. W. B. Bruce, P.C.
Marlow, Great ...	6,779	909	Col. O. L. C. Williams
Marylebone ...	498,311	34,687	D. Grant; Sir T. Chambers, Q.C.
Middlesbrough ...	51,965	10,750	I. Wilson
Midhurst ...	7,277	1,074	Sir H. T. Holland, Bart., K.C.M.G.
Monmouth, &c. ...	44,933	5,116	E. H. Carbutt
Morpeth ...	33,402	5,749	T. Burt.
Newark ...	14,019	2,194	T. Earp; W. N. Nicholson
Newcastle-under- Lyme ...	17,506	3,152	C. Donaldson Hudson; W. S. Allen
Newcastle-upon- Tyne ...	145,228	24,261	J. Cowen; A. W. Dilke
Newport (Isle of Wight) ...	9,110	1,332	C. C. Clifford
Northallerton ...	5,445	918	G. W. Elliot
Northampton ...	57,553	8,185	H. Labouchere; C. Bradlaugh
Norwich ...	87,843	15,502	J. J. Colman; J. H. Tillett
Nottingham ...	111,631	17,555	Lt.-Col. C. Seely; A. Morley
Oldham ...	152,511	21,383	J. T. Hibbert; Hon. E. L. Stanley
Oxford ...	40,862	6,242	—
Oxford Univ. ...	—	5,159	Sir J. R. Mowbray, Bt.; J. G. Talbot
Penryn ...	17,561	2,307	R. B. Brett; D. J. Jenkins
Peterborough ...	22,394	3,550	Hon. W. J. Fitzwilliam; G. H. Whalley
Petersfield ...	6,546	822	W. Nicholson
Plymouth ...	77,401	6,366	P. S. Macliver; E. G. Clarke, Q.C.
Pontefract ...	15,329	2,360	H. C. E. Childers; P.C.; S. Woolf
Poole ...	12,303	1,949	C. Schreiber
Portsmouth ...	127,953	17,912	Hon. T. C. Bruce; Sir H. D. Wolff,
Preston ...	93,707	11,748	W. F. Ecroyd [K.C.B.]
Reading ...	42,050	5,312	G. Palmer; G. J. S. Lefevre, P.C.
Retford, East ...	50,031	8,183	F. J. S. Foljambe; F. T. Mappin
Richmond (York.) ...	5,542	708	Hon. J. C. Dundas
Ripon ...	7,390	1,132	G. J. Goschen, P.C.



ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Rochdale ...	68,865	10,788	T. B. Potter
Rochester ...	21,590	2,938	Sir A. J. Otway, Bart.; R. Leigh
Rye ...	8,409	1,366	F. A. Inderwick, Q.C.
St. Ives ...	8,705	1,012	C. C. Ross
Salford ...	176,233	23,928	B. Armitage; A. Arnold
Salisbury ...	15,659	1,962	W. H. Grenfell; J. P. Edwards
Sandwich ...	15,666	2,207	H. A. Brassey
Scarborough ...	30,484	4,301	W. S. Caine; J. G. Dodson, P.C.
Shaftesbury ...	8,479	1,372	Hon. S. Carr-Glyn
Sheffield ...	294,410	42,402	A. J. Mundella, P.C.; C. B. S. Wortley
Shoreham, New	42,442	5,598	Sir W. W. Burrell, Bart.; R. Loder
Shrewsbury ...	26,478	3,821	C. C. Cotes; H. Robertson
Southampton ...	60,235	7,419	H. Lee; C. P. Butt
South Shields ...	56,922	10,112	J. C. Stevenson
Southwark ...	221,866	23,566	A. Cohen, Q.C.; J. E. T. Rogers
Stafford ...	19,901	3,344	C. B. B. MacLaren; T. Salt
Stalybridge ...	39,671	5,685	W. Summers
Stamford ...	8,995	1,321	M. C. Buszard
Stockport ...	59,544	8,158	C. H. Hopwood, Q.C.; F. Pennington
Stockton-on-Tees	55,446	8,062	J. Dodds
Stoke-upon-Trent	152,457	19,824	W. Woodall; H. Broadhurst
Stroud ...	40,573	6,331	W. J. Stanton; H. R. Brand
Sunderland ...	124,960	15,297	Col. E. T. Gourley; S. Storey
Tamworth ...	14,098	2,260	H. Bass; J. T. Balfour
Taunton ...	16,611	2,326	Lt.-Col. Sir W. Palliser, C.B.; Sir H. James, Kt., Q.C.
Tavistock ...	6,909	870	Lord A. Russell
Tewkesbury ...	5,100	757	R. B. Martin
Thirsk ...	6,306	976	Lt.-Col. Hon. L. P. Dawnay
Tiverton ...	10,462	1,405	Visc. Ebrington; Sir J. Heathcote Amory, Bart.
Tower Hamlets	438,910	40,681	J. Bryce; C. T. Ritchie
Truro ...	10,663	1,522	Col. Sir J. M. M. Hogg, Bart., K.C.B.; E. W. B. Williyams
Tynemouth ...	43,863	5,731	T. E. Smith
Wakefield ...	30,573	4,087	R. B. Mackie
Wallingford ...	8,194	1,229	P. Ralli
Walsall ...	59,415	9,538	Sir C. Forster, Bart.
Wareham ...	6,192	1,073	M. J. Guest
Warrington ...	45,257	6,222	J. G. MacMinnies
Warwick ...	11,802	1,729	A. W. Peel; G. W. J. Repton
Wednesbury ...	124,438	19,561	A. Brogden.
Wenlock ...	20,143	3,462	A. H. Brown; C. T. W. Forester
Westbury ...	6,014	1,101	C. N. P. Phipps
Westminster ...	228,932	21,774	W. H. Smith, P.C.; Sir C. Russell, Bt.
Weymouth and Melcombe Regis	13,704	1,694	H. Edwards; Sir F. J. W. Johnstone, Bt.

ENGLAND AND WALES—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Whitby ...	14,554	2,145	A. Pease
Whitehaven ...	19,717	2,582	G. A. F. C. Bentinck, P.C.
Wigan ...	48,196	5,937	T. Knowles.
Wilton ...	8,639	1,415	Hon. S. Herbert
Winchester ...	17,469	1,937	Viscount Baring; R. Moss
Windsor, New ...	19,080	2,115	R. R. Gardiner
Wolverhampton	164,303	23,259	C. P. Villiers, P.C.; H. H. Fowler
Woodstock ...	7,027	1,071	Lord R. H. S. Churchill
Worcester ...	40,421	6,393	T. R. Hill; Æ. J. McIntyre, Q.C.
Wycombe,			
Chipping ...	13,154	1,907	Hon. W. H. P. Carington
York ...	59,596	11,108	R. Greyke
<b>TOTAL, England</b>	<b>11,779,016</b>	<b>1,536,407</b>	
<b>WALES.</b>			
Beaumaris, &c.	14,242	2,559	Morgan Lloyd, Q.C.
Brecon ...	6,623	879	Cyril Flower
Cardiff, &c. ...	82,573	8,831	Sir E. J. Reed, K.C.B.
Cardigan, &c. ...	14,517	2,074	D. Davies
Carmarthen, &c.	30,529	5,752	B. T. Williams, Q.C.
Carnarvon, &c.	28,696	4,093	W. B. Hughes
Denbigh, &c. ...	22,831	3,084	Sir R. A. Cunliffe, Bart.
Flint, &c. ...	24,234	3,798	J. Roberts
Haverfordwest,			
&c. ...	9,176	1,555	Lord Kensington
Merthyr Tydfil	91,347	14,200	H. Richard; C. H. James
Montgomery, &c.	20,042	3,089	Hon. F. S. A. Hanbury-Tracy
Pembroke, &c. ...	25,309	3,361	H. G. Allen, Q.C.
Radnor, &c. ...	6,700	947	S. C. E. Williams
Swansea, &c. ...	105,949	14,321	Lewis L. Dillwyn
<b>TOTAL, Wales</b>	<b>482,767</b>	<b>68,543</b>	
<b>TOTAL for Cities</b>			
<b>and Boroughs,</b>			
<b>&amp;c., England</b>	<b>12,261,783</b>	<b>1,604,950</b>	
<b>and Wales</b>			

## SCOTLAND.

## I.—COUNTIES AND PARLIAMENTARY DIVISIONS OF COUNTIES.

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Aberdeen, East }	148,119	{ 4,721	Gen. Hon. Sir. A. Gordon
Aberdeen, West }		{ 4,139	R. Farquharson, M.D.
Argyll ...	63,479	3,426	Lord C. Campbell

SCOTLAND—*Continued.*

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Ayr, North } Ayr, South }	162,851	{ 3,711 { 3,920	R. W. C. Patrick Col. C. Alexander
Banff ...	51,819	2,646	R. W. Duff
Berwick... ..	34,415	1,869	Hon. E. Marjoribanks
Bute ... ..	17,489	1,864	C. Dalrymple
Caithness ...	30,763	1,147	Sir J. G. T. Sinclair, Bart.
Clackmannan and Kinross ...	32,342	2,106	J. B. Balfour
Dumbarton ...	61,394	3,041	A. O. Ewing
Dumfries ...	53,113	3,409	R. Jardine
Edinburgh ...	86,748	3,870	W. E. Gladstone, P.C.
Elgin and Nairn	38,629	1,958	Sir G. M. Grant, Bart.
Fife ... ..	101,333	4,789	Hon. R. P. Bruce
Forfar ... ..	67,479	3,634	J. W. Barclay
Haddington ...	29,084	1,067	Lord Elcho
Inverness ...	72,787	1,894	D. Cameron
Kincardine ...	33,350	1,866	Gen. Sir G. Balfour, K.C.B.
Kircudbright ...	39,096	2,223	Capt. J. H. Maxwell
Lanark, North }	372,172	{ 10,475	Sir T. Colebrooke, Bart.
Lanark, South }		{ 3,707	Lt.-Col. J. G. C. Hamilton
Linlithgow ...	37,567	1,266	P. McLagan
Orkney and Shet- land ... ..	57,492	1,727	S. Laing
Peebles and Sel- kirk ... ..	20,862	1,217	C. Tennant
Perth ... ..	99,647	6,006	Sir D. Currie, K.C.M.G.
Renfrew ... ..	127,223	6,186	A. Crum
Ross and Cromarty	72,486	1,739	A. Matheson
Roxburgh ...	33,858	2,026	Hon. A. R. D. Elliot
Stirling ... ..	83,106	3,399	J. C. Bolton
Sutherland ...	22,806	325	Marq. of Stafford
Wigtown ... ..	28,735	1,700	Sir H. E. Maxwell, Bart.
<b>TOTAL ... ..</b>	<b>2,080,243</b>	<b>96,570</b>	

## II.—CITIES AND BURGHS.

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Aberdeen ...	105,003	14,152	J. Webster
Ayr District ...	41,731	4,267	R. F. F. Campbell
Dumfries District	25,583	2,999	E. Noel
Dundee ... ..	140,064	15,825	G. Armitstead; F. Henderson
Edinburgh ...	228,190	28,644	T. R. Buchanan; J. Cowan

## SCOTLAND—Continued.

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Edinburgh & St. Andrews Univs.		6,039	L. Playfair, C.B., P.C.
Elgin District ...	32,845	3,829	A. Asher
Falkirk District	49,346	5,353	J. Ramsay
Glasgow ...	487,948	57,882	G. Anderson; C. Cameron, M.D.; R. T. Middleton
Glasgow & Aber- deen Univs. ...		6,080	J. A. Campbell
Greenock ..	63,899	7,373	J. Stewart
Haddington Dist.	13,755	1,880	A. Craig Sellar
Hawick District .	34,708	4,909	G. O. Trevelyan
Inverness District	26,427	3,118	C. Fraser Mackintosh
Kilmarnock Dist.	65,650	8,240	J. Dick-Peddie
Kirkcaldy District	31,831	4,518	Sir G. Campbell
Leith District ...	72,851	10,377	A. Grant
Montrose District	59,676	8,278	W. E. Baxter, P.C.
Paisley ...	55,642	4,979	W. Holms
Perth ...	28,948	4,069	C. S. Parkor
St. Andrew's Dist.	19,406	2,693	S. Williamson
Stirling District .	36,793	4,904	H. Campbell-Bannerman
Wick District ...	17,456	1,830	J. Pender
Wigtown District	10,139	1,420	Adml. Sir J. D. Hay, Bart., C.B.
TOTAL ...	1,647,881	213,648	
TOTAL Counties...	2,080,243	*96,570	
TOTAL Burghs ...	1,647,881	*213,648	
GRAND TOTAL } for SCOTLAND }	3,728,124	310,218	

\* The populations of counties are exclusive of Parliamentary Burghs and of shipping.  
The populations of burghs are exclusive of shipping.

## IRELAND.

## 1.—COUNTIES AND PARLIAMENTARY DIVISIONS OF COUNTIES.

—	Popula- tion.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Antrim ...	218,123	11,570	J. Chaine; E. Macnaghten, Q.C.
Armagh ...	148,078	6,855	J. N. Richardson; M. C. Close
Carlow ...	40,640	2,127	E. D. Gray; D. H. Macfarlane
Cavan ...	129,008	5,898	C. J. Fay; J. G. Biggar
Clare ...	134,908	5,413	Capt. W. H. O'Shea; the O'G. Mahon
Cork ...	373,202	14,945	W. Shaw; Col. De la T. Colthurst
Donegal ...	205,443	4,542	T. Lea; Rev. J. Kinnear
Down ..	233,422	12,718	Lord A. W. Hill, Visc. Castlereagh

IRELAND—*Continued.*

—	Popu- lation.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Dublin ...	145,088	4,991	Col. T. E. Taylor, P.C.; I. T. Hamilton
Fermanagh ...	78,791	4,544	W. H. Archdale; Viscount Crichton
Galway ...	222,756	4,807	Lt.-Col. J. P. Nolan; M. Henry
Kerry ...	190,784	5,202	R. P. Blennerhassett; Sir R. Blennerhassett
Kildare ...	76,102	2,746	C. H. Meldon, Q.C.; J. Leahy
Kilkenny ...	83,810	4,741	E. P. M. Marum; P. L. Martin, Q.C.
King's ...	71,867	3,211	Sir P. O'Brien, Bt.; B. C. Molloy
Leitrim ...	89,795	2,294	A. L. Tottenham; Maj. F. O'Beirne
Limerick ...	128,957	5,797	W. H. O'Sullivan; E. J. Synan
Londonderry ...	129,083	5,696	Sir T. M'Clure, Bt.
Longford ...	60,790	2,595	G. Errington; J. McCarthy
Louth ...	51,272	2,070	P. Callan; A. H. Bellingham
Mayo ...	243,030	3,087	J. O'C. Power; Rev. J. Nelson
Meath ...	86,301	3,838	R. H. Metge; A. M. Sullivan
Monaghan ...	102,590	5,297	J. Givan; W. Findlater
Queen's ...	69,805	3,066	R. Lalor; A. O'Connor
Roscommon ...	128,064	3,602	A. Commins; J. O'Kelly
Sligo ...	110,955	3,192	T. Sexton; D. M. O'Connor
Tipperary ...	188,537	9,067	P. J. Smyth; J. Dillon
Tyrone ...	193,152	8,674	J. W. E. Macartney; T. A. Dickson
Waterford ...	76,854	3,068	H. V. Stuart; J. A. Blake
Westmeath ...	68,303	3,462	T. D. Sullivan; H. J. Gill
Wexford ...	105,196	5,823	J. Barry; G. M. Byrne
Wicklow ...	73,679	3,279	W. J. Corbet, J. C. M'Coan
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,258,385</b>	<b>168,217</b>	

## II.—CITIES AND BOROUGHES.

—	Popu- lation.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Armagh ...	8,797	652	Capt. G. de la P. Beresford
Athlone ...	6,901	337	Sir J. J. Ennis, Bart.
Bandon ...	6,045	434	R. L. Allman
Belfast ...	207,671	21,989	W. Ewart; J. P. Corry
Carlow ...	7,036	295	C. Dawson
Carrickfergus ...	10,009	1,500	T. Greer
Clonmel ...	10,519	416	A. Moore
Coleraine ...	6,684	443	Sir H. H. Bruce, Bart.
Cork ...	97,526	4,813	J. Daly; C. S. Parnell
Downpatrick ...	3,902	319	J. Mulholland
Drogheda ..	14,662	721	B. Whitworth

## IRELAND—Continued.

—	Population.	No. of Electors.	Names of Representatives.
Dublin ... ..	273,064	12,490	M. Brooks : R. D. Lyons
Dublin University	—	3,747	E. Gibson, Q.C., P.C.; D. R. Plunkett, P.C., Q.C.
Dundalk ... ..	12,294	546	C. Russell, Q.C.
Dungannon ... ..	4,081	279	J. Dickson
Dungarvan ... ..	7,377	304	F. H. O'Donnell
Ennis ... ..	6,302	254	J. L. Finnigan
Enniskillen ... ..	5,842	414	Visc. Cole
Galway ... ..	18,906	1,146	J. O. Lever; T. P. O'Connor
Kilkenny ... ..	14,964	663	J. F. Smithwick
Kinsale ... ..	5,560	190	E. Collins
Limerick ... ..	48,246	1,906	D. F. G. Gabbett; R. O'Shaughnessy
Lisburn ... ..	10,834	798	Sir B. Wallace, Bart., K.C.B.
Londonderry ... ..	28,947	2,078	C. E. Lewis
Mallow ... ..	4,437	288	W. M. Johnson, G.C., P.C.
New Ross ... ..	6,626	261	J. E. Redmond
Newry ... ..	15,085	1,216	H. Thomson
Portarlington ... ..	2,426	142	Hon. B. E. B. Fitzpatrick
Tralee ... ..	9,664	380	D. O'Donoghue
Waterford ... ..	28,952	1,469	E. Leamy; R. Power
Wexford ... ..	12,055	488	T. M. Healy
Youghal ... ..	6,040	266	Sir J. N. McKenna, Kt.
TOTALS ... ..	901,454	61,244	
GRAND TOTAL } for Ireland }	5,159,839	229,461	

## THE MEMBERS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS,

### ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED.

Acland, Sir T. D., Bt. (L), <i>Devon, N.</i>	Allsopp, Samuel C. (O) ... <i>Taunton</i>
Acland, Chas. T. Dyke (L), <i>Cornwall, E.</i>	Amherst, Wm. A. T. (C), <i>Norfolk, W.</i>
Agnew, William (L), <i>Lancashire, S.E.</i>	Amory, Sir J. H., Bt. (L), <i>Tiverton</i>
Ainsworth, David (L), <i>Cumberland W.</i>	Anderson, George (L) ... <i>Glasgow</i>
Alexander, Col. Claud (O), <i>Ayrshire, S.</i>	Archdale, William H. (O), <i>Fermanagh</i>
Allen, Henry G. (L) ... <i>Pembroke, &amp;c.</i>	Armitage, Benjamin (L), <i>Salford</i>
Allen, Wm. Shepherd (L), <i>Newcas.-un-Lyme</i>	Armitstead, George (L) ... <i>Dundee</i>
Allman, Richard L. (L) ... <i>Bandon</i>	Arnold, Arthur (L) ..... <i>Salford</i>
	Asher, Alexander (L) ..... <i>Elgin, &amp;c.</i>

- Ashley, Hon. E. M. (L)... *I. of Wight*  
 Ashmead-Bartlett, E. (O), *Eye*  
 Aylmer, John E. F. (O), *Maidstone*
- Bailey, Sir J. R., Bt. (C), *Herefordsh.*  
 Baldwin, Enoch (L) ..... *Bewdley*  
 Balfour, Arthur J. (O) ... *Hertford*  
 Balfour, Gen. Sir G.,  
   K.C.B. (L) ..... *Kinross*  
 Balfour, J. Spencer (L) ... *Tamworth*  
 Balfour, Rt. Hon. John *Clackman-*  
   B. (L) ..... *nan, &c.*  
 Barclay, James W. (L) ... *Forfarshire*  
 Baring, Thomas C. (C) ... *Essex, S.*  
 Baring, Viscount (L) ..... *Winchester*  
 Barne, Col. F. St. J. N. (O), *Suffolk, E.*  
 Barnes, Alfred (L) ..... *Derbysh. E.*  
 Barran, John (L) ..... *Leeds*  
 Barry, John (HR) ..... *Wexford Co.*  
 Bartelot, Col. Sir W. B.,  
   Bt., C.B. (C) ..... *Sussex, W.*  
 Bass, Hamar Alfred (L) ... *Tamworth*  
 Bass, Sir M. A., Bt. (L), *Stafford, E.*  
 Bass, Michael T. (L) ..... *Derby*  
 Bateson, Sir Thos., Bt. (O), *Devizes*  
 Baxter, Rt. Hon. W. E. *Montrose,*  
   (L) ..... *&c.*  
 Beach, Rt. Hon. Sir. M. *Gloucester,*  
   H., Bt. (O) ..... *E.*  
 Beach, Wm. W. B. (O) ... *Hants, N.*  
 Beaumont, W. B. (L) ... *Northum., S.*  
 Bective, Earl of (C) ... *Westmoreland*  
 Bellingham, Alan H. (HR), *Louth*  
 Bentinck, Rt. Hon. G. A.  
   C. (O) ..... *Whitehaven*  
 Bentinck, Geo. W. P. (C), *Norfolk, W.*  
 Beresford, G. De la P. (O), *Armagh*  
 Biddell, William (O) ..... *Suffolk, W.*  
 Biddulph, Michael (L) ... *Herefordsh.*  
 Biggar, Joseph G. (HR) ... *Cavan Co.*  
 Kirkbeck, Edward (O) ... *Norfolk N.*  
 Birley, Hugh (O) ..... *Manchester*  
 Blackburne, Col. J. I. (O), *Lanc., S. W.*  
 Blake, John Aloysius (HR), *Waterford*  
 Blennerhassett, R. P. (L), *Kerry [Co.*  
 Blennerhassett, Sir R., Bt.  
   (L) ..... *Kerry*  
 Bolton, Joseph C. (L) ... *Stirling*  
 Boord, Thomas W. (O) ... *Greenwich*  
 Borlase, William O. (L), *Cornwall, E.*  
 Bourke, Rt. Hon. R. (C), *Lynn Regis*  
 Bradlaugh, Charles (L), *Northampton*  
 Brand, Rt. Hon. Sir H., *Cambridge-*  
   G.C.B. (L) ..... *shire*
- Brand, Henry R. (L) ..... *Stroud*  
 Brassey, Henry A. (L) ... *Sandwich*  
 Brassey, Sir T., K.C.B. (L), *Hastings*  
 Brett, Reginald B. (L) ... *Penryn, &c.*  
 Briggs, William E. (L) ... *Blackburn*  
 Bright, Jacob (L) ..... *Manchester*  
 Bright, Rt. Hon. John (L), *Birmingham*  
 Brinton, John (L) ..... *Kidderminster*  
 Brise, Col. S. Ruggles-  
   (C) ..... *Essex, E.*  
 Broadhurst, Henry (L) ... *Stoke-on-*  
   Trent
- Broadley, W. H. H. (O), *York, E.*  
   Riding
- Brodrick, Hon. W. St.  
   John (O) ..... *Surrey, W.*  
 Brogden, Alexander (L), *Widnesbury*  
 Brooke, Lord (O) ..... *Somerset, E.*  
 Brooks, Maurice (HR) ... *Dublin*  
 Brooks, W. Cunliffe (C), *Cheshire, E.*  
 Brown, A. H. (L) ..... *Wenlock*  
 Bruce, Rt. Hon. Lord C.  
   W. (L) ..... *Marlboro'.*  
 Bruce, Hon. R. P. (L) ... *Fifeshire*  
 Bruce, Hon. Thos. C. (O), *Portsmouth*  
 Bruce, Sir H. H., Bt. (O), *Coleraine*  
 Bryce, James (L) ..... *Tower Hamlets*  
 Brymer, W. Ernest (O), *Dorchester*  
 Buchanan, Thos. R. (L), *Edinburgh*  
 Bulwer, James R. (O) ... *Cambridgesh.*  
 Burghley, Lord (C) ..... *Northamp-*  
   tonsh. N.
- Burnaby, Maj.-Gen. E. S. *Leicestersh.*  
   (C) ..... *N.*  
 Burrell, Sir W. W., Bt. *New*  
   (C) ..... *Shoreham*  
 Burt, Thomas (L) ..... *Morpeth*  
 Buszard, Marston C. (L), *Stamford*  
 Butt, Charles P. (L) ..... *Southampton*  
 Buxton, Francis W. (L), *Andover*  
 Buxton, Sir Robt. J., Bt.  
   (C) ..... *Norfolk, S.*  
 Byrne, Garrett M. (HR) ... *Wexford Co.*
- Caine, William S. (L) ... *Scarboro'.*  
 Callan, Philip (HR) ..... *Louth*  
 Cameron, Chas., LL.D. (L), *Glasgow*  
 Cameron, Donald (O) ... *Invernessh.*  
 Campbell-Bannerman, H. *Stirling,*  
   (L) ..... *&c.*  
 Campbell, Lord Colin (L), *Argyll*  
 Campbell, James A. (O), *Glasgow, &c.*  
   Univ.  
 Campbell, R. F. F. (L) ... *Ayr, &c.*

- Campbell, Sir Geo., K.C.S.I. *Kirkcaldy, (L) ... &c.*  
 Carbutt, Edward H. (L), *Monmouth, &c.*  
 Carden, Sir R. W. (O) ... *Barnstaple*  
 Carington, Hon. R. (L) ... *Bucks.*  
 Carington, Col. Hon. W. H. P. (L) ... *Wycombe*  
 Cartwright, W. C. (L) ... *Oxfordshire*  
 Castlereagh, Viscount (O), *Down*  
 Causton, R. Knight (L), *Colchester*  
 Cavendish, Lord E. (L), *Derbysh., N.*  
 Cecil, Lord Eustace (O), *Essex, W.*  
 Chaine, James (C) ... *Antrim Co.*  
 Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. J. (L) ... *Birmingham*  
 Chambers, Sir Thos. (L), *Marylebone*  
 Chaplin, Henry (O) ... *Lincoln, M.*  
 Cheetham, John F. (L), *Derbysh., N.*  
 Childers, Rt. Hon. H. C. E. (L) ... *Pontefract*  
 Christie, William L. (O), *Leves*  
 Churchill, Lord R. (C) ... *Woodstock*  
 Clarke, Edward (O) ... *Plymouth*  
 Clarke, John C. (L) ... *Abingdon*  
 Clifford, C. Cavendish, (L) *Newport, I.*  
 Clive, Col. Hon. G. [W. Windsor (C) ... *Ludlow*  
 Close, Maxwell Chas. (O), *Armagh Co.*  
 Cobbold, T. C., C.B. (C), *Ipswich*  
 Coddington, William (C), *Blackburn*  
 Cohen, Arthur (L) ... *Southwark*  
 Cole, Viscount (O) ... *Enniskillen*  
 Colebrooke, Sir T. E., Bt. *Lanarksh., (L) ... N.*  
 Collings, Jesse (L) ... *Ipswich*  
 Collins, Eugene (HR) ... *Kinsale*  
 Collins, Thomas (O) ... *Knaresboro'*  
 Colman, Jeremiah J. (L), *Norwich*  
 Colthurst, Col. David la T. (HR) ... *Cork Co.*  
 Commins, A., LL.D. (HR), *Roscommon*  
 Compton, Francis (O) ... *Hants, S.*  
 Coope, Octavius E. (C) ... *Middlesex*  
 Corbet, William J. (HR), *Wicklow Co.*  
 Corbett, John (L) ... *Droitwich*  
 Corry, James P. (C) ... *Belfast*  
 Cotes, Charles C. (L) ... *Shrewsbury*  
 Cotton, Ald. William J. R. (O) ... *London*  
 Courtauld, George (L) ... *Maldon*  
 Courtney, Leonard H. (L), *Liskeard*  
 Cowan, James (L) ... *Edinburgh*  
 Cowen, Joseph (L) ... *Newcas.-on-Tyne*  
 Cowper, Hon. H. F. (L), *Herts.*  
 Craig, William Y. (L), *Staffordsh., N.*  
 Creyke, Ralph (L) ... *York*  
 Crichton, Viscount (C) ... *Fermanagh*  
 Cropper, James (L) ... *Kendal*  
 Cross, J. Kynaston (L) ... *Bolton*  
 Cross, Rt. Hon. Sir R. A. *Lancashire, G.C.B. (O) ... S.W.*  
 Crum, Alexander (L) ... *Renfrew*  
 Cubitt, Rt. Hon. G. (O), *Surrey, W.*  
 Cunliffe, Sir Robert A., Bt. (L) ... *Denbigh, &c.*  
 Currie, Sir D., K.C.M.G., (L) ... *Perthshire*  
 Dalrymple, Charles (C) ... *Bute*  
 Daly, John (HR) ... *Cork*  
 Davenport, H. T. (O), *Staffordsh., N.*  
 Davenport, W. B. (O), *Warwick., N.*  
 Davey, Horace (L) ... *Christchurch*  
 Davies, David (L) ... *Cardigan, &c.*  
 Davies, Richard (L) ... *Anglesey*  
 Davies, William (L) ... *Pembrokesh.*  
 Dawnay, Col. Hon. L. P. (C) ... *Thirsk*  
 Dawnay, Hon. G. C. (C), *York, N. Riding*  
 Dawson, Charles (HR) ... *Carlou*  
 De Ferrières, Baron (L), *Cheltenham*  
 De Worms, Baron H. (O), *Greenwich*  
 Dickson, Maj. A. G. (O), *Dover*  
 Dickson, James (L) ... *Dungannon*  
 Dickson, Thomas A. (L), *Tyrone*  
 Digby, Col. Hon. E. T. (O), *Dorsetshire*  
 Dilke, Ashton W. (L) ... *Newcas.-on-Tyne*  
 Dilke, Sir C. W., Bt. (L), *Chelsea*  
 Dillon, John (HR) ... *Tipperary*  
 Dillwyn, Lewis L. (L) ... *Swansea*  
 Dixon-Hartland, Fred. D. (C) ... *Evesham*  
 Dodds, Joseph (L) ... *Stockton*  
 Dodson, Rt. Hon. J. G. (L), *Scarborough*  
 Donaldson-Hudson, Chas. *Newcas.-u.- (O) ... Lyme*  
 Douglas, Aretas A. (O) ... *Kent, E.*  
 Duckham, Thomas (L) ... *Herefordsh.*  
 Duff, Robert W. (L) ... *Banffshire*  
 Dundas, Hon. J. C. (L) ... *Richmond*  
 Dyke, Rt. Hon. Sir W. H., Bt. (C) ... *Kent, Mid.*  
 Earp, Thomas (L) ... *Newark*  
 Eaton, Henry William (O), *Coventry*



- Ebrington, Viscount (L), *Tiverton*  
 Ecroyd, William F. (C), *Preston*  
 Edwards, Henry (L) *Weymouth, &c.*  
 Edwards, J. Passmore (L), *Salisbury*  
 Egerton, Adm. Hon. F. *Derbyshire,*  
 (L)..... *E.*  
 Egerton, Hon. W. (C) ... *Cheshire, M.*  
 Elcho, Lord (C)..... *Haddingtonsh.*  
 Elliot, Hon. Arthur R. D.  
 (L)..... *Roxburgh*  
 Elliot, Sir George, Bt. (C), *Durham, N.*  
 Elliot, George W. (C).... *Northallerton*  
 Emlyn, Viscount (C) ... *Carmarthensh.*  
 Ennis, Sir J. J., Bt. (L), *Athlone*  
 Errington, George (HR), *Longford Co.*  
 Estcourt, G. Sotherton (C), *Wilts, N.*  
 Evans, Thomas W. (L), *Derbysh., S.*  
 Ewart, William (C) ..... *Belfast*  
 Ewing, Archibald Orr (C), *Dumbarton*
- Fairbairn, Sir Andrew *York, W.*  
 (L)..... *Rid., E.*  
 Farquharson, Dr. R. (L), *Aberdeens., W.*  
 Fawcett, Rt. Hon. H. (L), *Hackney*  
 Fay, Charles Joseph (HR), *Cavan Co.*  
 Feilden, Maj.-Gen. R. J., *Lancashire,*  
 C.M.G. (C)..... *N.*  
 Fellowes, Capt. W. H. (C), *Huntingdsh.*  
 Fenwick-Bisset, M. (C), *Somerset, W.*  
 Ferguson, Robert (L) ... *Carlisle*  
 Ffolkes, Sir Wm. H. B., *Lynn Regis*  
 Bt. (L) .....  
 Filmer, Sir E., Bt. (C) ... *Kent, Mid.*  
 Finch, George H. (C) ... *Rutland*  
 Findlater, William (L) ... *Monaghan*  
 Finigan, J. Lysaght (HR), *Ennis*  
 Firth, Joseph F. B. (L) ... *Chelsea*  
 Fitzmaurice, Lord E. (L), *Calne*  
 Fitzpatrick, Hon. B. E. *Portarling-*  
 (C)..... *ton*  
 Fitzwilliam, Hon. C. W.  
 (L)..... *Malton*  
 Fitzwilliam, Hon. W. H. *York, W.*  
 W. (L) ..... *Rid., S.*  
 Fitzwilliam, Hon. W. J. *Peter-*  
 (L)..... *borough*  
 Fletcher, Sir H., Bt. (C), *Horsham*  
 Flower, Cyril (L) ..... *Brecknock*  
 Floyer, John (C) ..... *Dorsetshire*  
 Foljambe, Cecil G. S. (L), *Notts, N.*  
 Foljambe, F. J. S. (L) ... *E. Retford*  
 Folkestone, Viscount (C), *Wilts, S.*  
 Forester, Cecil T. W. (C), *Wenlock*  
 Forster, Sir C., Bt. (L) ... *Walsall*
- Forster, Rt. Hon. W. E.  
 (L)..... *Bradford*  
 Fort, Richard (L) ..... *Clitheroe*  
 Foster, William H. (C).... *Bridgnorth*  
 Fowler, Henry H. (L) *Wolverhampton,*  
 Fowler, Ald. R. N. (C) ... *London*  
 Fowler, William (L) ..... *Cambridge*  
 Fremantle, Hon. T. F. (C), *Bucks*  
 Freshfield, Charles K. (C), *Dover*  
 Fry, Lewis (L)..... *Bristol*  
 Fry, Theodore (L) ..... *Darlington*
- Gabbett, Daniel F. (HR), *Limerick*  
 Galway, Viscount (C) ... *Notts, N.*  
 Gardner, R. Richardson-  
 (C)..... *Windsor*  
 Garnier, John C. (C) ..... *Devon, S.*  
 Gibson, Rt. Hon. E. (C), *Dublin Un.*  
 Giffard, Sir H. S. (C)..... *Launceston*  
 Gill, Henry J. (HR) ..... *Westmeath*  
 Givan, John (L) ..... *Monaghan*  
 Gladstone, Rt. Hon. W. E. *Edinburgh-*  
 (L)..... *shire*  
 Gladstone, H. J. (L) ..... *Leeds*  
 Gladstone, W. H. (L) ... *Worcester, E.*  
 Glyn, Hon. S. Carr- (L), *Shaftesbury*  
 Goldney, Sir G., Bt. (C), *Chippenham*  
 Gooch, Sir D., Bt. (C) ... *Cricklade*  
 Gordon, Gen. Hon. Sir A. *Aberdeen-*  
 H. (L) ..... *sh., E.*  
 Gordon, Lord D. W. C. *Hunting-*  
 (L)..... *donshire*  
 Gore-Langton, W. S. (C), *Somerset, M.*  
 Gorst, John E. (C)..... *Chatham*  
 Goschen, Rt. Hon. G. J.  
 (L)..... *Ripon*  
 Gourley, Edward T. (L).... *Sunderland*  
 Gower, Hon. E. F. L. (L), *Bodmin*  
 Grafton, F. W. (L), *Lancashire, N.E.*  
 Grant, Andrew (L) ..... *Leith, &c.*  
 Grant, Daniel (L) ..... *Marylebone*  
 Grant, Sir G. Macpherson, *Elgin and*  
 Bt. (L) ..... *Nairn*  
 Grantham, William (C).... *Surrey, E.*  
 Gray, Edmond D. (HR) ... *Carlton Co.*  
 Greene, Edward (C), *Bury St. Edmunds*  
 Greer, Thomas, (C) ..... *Carrickfergus*  
 Gregory, George B. (C), *Sussex, E.*  
 Grenfell, William H. (L), *Salisbury*  
 Grey, Albert H. G. (L), *Northumb., S.*  
 Grosvenor, Rt. Hon. Lord  
 R. (L) ..... *Flintshire*  
 Guest, Montague J. (L).... *Wareham*  
 Gurdon, Robert T. (L) ... *Norfolk S.*

- Halsey, Thomas F. (C) ... *Herts*  
 Hamilton, Lord C. J. (C), *Liverpool*  
 Hamilton, Rt. Hon. Lord  
   G. (C) ..... *Middlesex*  
 Hamilton, Ion T. (C)..... *Dublin Co.*  
 Hamilton, John G. (C) (L), *Lanark, S.*  
 Harcourt, Col. E. W. (C), *Oxfordshire*  
 Harcourt, Rt. Hon. Sir  
   W. G. Vernon (L) ..... *Derby*  
 Hardcastle, J. A. (L), *Bury St. Emds.*  
 Hartington, Rt. Hn. Marq. *Lancashire,*  
   (L) ..... *N.E.*  
 Harvey, Sir R. B., Bt. (C), *Bucks.*  
 Hastings, G. W. (L), *Worcestersh., E.*  
 Hay, Adm. Rt. Hon. Sir *Wigtown,*  
   J. C. D., Bt. (C) ..... &c.  
 Hayter, Col. Sir A. D.,  
   Bt. (L) ..... *Bath*  
 Healy, Timothy M. (HR), *Wexford*  
 Henderson, Frank (L) ... *Dundee*  
 Heneage, Edward (L)..... *Gt. Grimsby*  
 Henry, Mitchell (HR) ..... *Galway*  
 Herbert, Hon. Sidney (C), *Wilton*  
 Herschell, Sir Farrer (L), *Durham*  
 Hibbert, John T. (L) ..... *Oldham*  
 Hicks, Edward (C) ... *Cambridgeshire*  
 Hildyard, Thos. B. T. (C), *Notts, S.*  
 Hill, A. Staveley (C), *Staffordsh., W.*  
 Hill, Lord Arthur W. (C), *Downshire*  
 Hill, Thomas R. (L) ..... *Worcester*  
 Hinchingsbrook, Visc. (C), *Huntingdon*  
 Holden, Isaac (L) ... *York, W. Rid., N.*  
 Holland, Sir H. T., Bt.,  
   K.C.M.G. (C) ..... *Midhurst*  
 Holland, Samuel (L) ..... *Merioneth*  
 Holland, John Robt. (L), *Brighton*  
 Holms, John (L) ..... *Hackney*  
 Holms, William (L) ..... *Paisley*  
 Home, Lt.-Col. D. Milne- *Berwick-o-*  
   (C) ... *Tweed*  
 Hope, Rt. Hon. A. J.  
   Beresford- (C) ..... *Camb. Uni.*  
 Hopwood, Charles H. (L), *Stockport*  
 Howard, E. S. (L) ... *Cumberland, E.*  
 Howard, George J. (L), *Cumberland, E.*  
 Howard, James (L) ..... *Bedfordshire*  
 Hubbard, Rt. Hon. J. G.  
   (C) ..... *London*  
 Hutchinson, John D. (L), *Halifax*  
 Illingworth, Alfred (L) ... *Bradford*  
 Ince, F. A. (L) ..... *Rye*  
 Jackson, William L. (C), *Leeds*  
 James, Charles H. (L), *Merthyr Tydfil*  
 James, Sir Henry (L)..... *Taunton*  
 James, Walter H. (L) ... *Gateshead*  
 Jardine, Robert (L) ..... *Dumfriessh.*  
 Jenkins, David J. (L)..... *Penryn, &c.*  
 Jenkins, Sir J. J. (L), *Carmarthen, &c.*  
 Jerningham, Hubert E. *Berwick-on-*  
   H. (L) ..... *Tweed*  
 Johnson, Edward (L) ..... *Exeter*  
 Johnson, Rt. Hon. W. M.  
   (L) ..... *Mallow*  
 Johnstone, Sir F. J. W., *Weymouth,*  
   Bt. (C) ..... &c.  
 Kennard, Col. E. H. (C), *Lymington*  
 Kennaway, Sir J. H., Bt.  
   (C) ..... *Devon, E.*  
 Kensington, Rt. Hon. *Haverford-*  
   Lord (L) ..... *west*  
 Kingscote, Col. R. N. F. *Gloucester.,*  
   (L) ..... *W.*  
 Kinnear, John, D.D. (L) ... *Donegal*  
 Knight, F. W. (C), *Worcestersh., W.*  
 Knightley, Sir R., Bt. (C), *Northants, S.*  
 Knowles, Thomas (C) ... *Wigan*  
 Labouchere, Henry (L), *Northampton*  
 Lacon, Sir E. H. K., Bt. (C) *Norfolk, N.*  
 Laing, Samuel (L) ..... *Orkney, &c.*  
 Lalor, Richard (HR) ..... *Queen's Co.*  
 Lambton, Hon. F. W. (L), *Durham, S.*  
 Lawrance, John C. (C), *Lincolnsh., S.*  
 Lawrence, Ald. W. (L) ... *London*  
 Lawrence, Sir J. C., Bt. (L), *Lambeth*  
 Lawrence, Sir J. J. T., *Surrey,*  
   Bt. (C) ..... *Mid.*  
 Lawson, Sir W., Bt. (L), *Carlisle*  
 Lea, Thomas (L) ..... *Donegal*  
 Leahy, James (HR) ..... *Kildare*  
 Leake, Robert (L) ... *Lancashire, S.E.*  
 Leamy, Edmond (HR) ..... *Waterford*  
 Leatham, Edward A. (L), *Huddersfield*  
 Leatham, W. H. (L), *York, W. Rid. S.*  
 Lechmere, Sir E. A. H., *Worcester.,*  
   Bt. (C) ..... *W.*  
 Lee, Henry, (L) ..... *Southampton*  
 Leeman, Joseph J. (L) ... *York*  
 Lefevre, Rt. Hon. G. J.  
   Shaw (L) ..... *Reading*  
 Legh, William John (C), *Cheshire, E.*  
 Leigh, Hon. G. H. C. (L), *Warwick, S.*  
 Leigh, Roger (C) ..... *Rochester*  
 Leighton, Sir B., Bt. (C), *Shropsh., S.*  
 Leighton, Stanley (C) ... *Shropsh., N.*

Lennox, Rt. Hon. Lord  
   H. G. (O) ..... *Chichester*  
 Lever, J. Orrell (HR) ..... *Galway*  
 Levett, Col. Theo. J. (C) ..... *Lichfield*  
 Lewis, Charles E. (C) .. *Londonderry*  
 Lewisham, Viscount (C), *Kent, W.*  
 Lindsay, Col. Sir R. J.  
   Loyd, K.C.B. (C) ..... *Berks.*  
 Lloyd, Morgan (L) ..... *Beaumaris*  
 Loder, Robert (O) ..... *Shoreham*  
 Long, Walter H. (C) ..... *Wilts, N.*  
 Lopes, Sir Massey, Bt. (C), *Devon, S.*  
 Lowther, Rt. Hon. J. (O), *Lincoln, N.*  
 Lowther, Hon. Wm. (O), *Westmoreld.*  
 Lubbock, Sir J., Bt. (L), *London Univ.*  
 Lusk, Sir Andrew, Bt. (L), *Finsbury*  
 Lymington, Viscount (L), *Barnstaple*  
 Lyons, Dr. Robert D. (L), *Dublin*  
  
 Macartney, J. W. E. (C), *Tyrone*  
 Macfarlane, D. H. (HR) ... *Carlisle Co.*  
 MacIver, David (C) ..... *Birkenhead*  
 Mackie, Robert B. (L) ..... *Wakefield*  
 Mackintosh, Chas. F. (L), *Inverness, &c.*  
 MacIver, Peter S. (L) ... *Plymouth*  
 Macnaghten, Edward (O), *Antrim*  
 McArthur, Alex. (L) ..... *Leicester*  
 McArthur, Ald. Wm. (L), *Lambeth*  
 McCarthy, Justin (HR) .. *Longford*  
 McClure, Sir T., Bt. (L), *Londonderry Co.*  
 McCoan, James C. (HR) ... *Wicklow*  
 McGarel-Hogg, Sir J. M.,  
   Bt. (O) ..... *Truro*  
 McIntyre, Æneas J. (L) ... *Worcester*  
 McKenna, Sir J. N. (HR), *Youghal*  
 Mc'Lagan, Peter (L) ..... *Linkithgow*  
 McLaren, Chas. B. B. (L), *Stafford*  
 McMinnies, John G. (L), *Warrington*  
 Magniac, Charles (L) ..... *Bedford*  
 Maitland, W. Fuller (L) ... *Brecknock*  
 Makins, Col. W. T. (C) ... *Essex, S.*  
 Manners, Rt. Hon. Lord  
   J., G.C.B. (C) ..... *Leicestersh. N.*  
 Mappin, Frederick T. (L), *E. Retford*  
 March, Earl of (O) ..... *Sussex, W.*  
 Marjoribanks, Hon. Ed. (L), *Berwicksh.*  
 Marriott, William T. (L) ... *Brighton*  
 Martin, Patrick (HR) ..... *Kilkenny Co.*  
 Martin, R. Biddulph (L), *Tewkesbury*  
 Marum, E. P. M. (HR) ... *Kilkenny Co.*  
 Mason, Hugh (L) ... *Ashton-un.-Lyne*  
 Master, Thos. W. C. (O), *Cirencester*  
 Matheson, Sir A., Bt. (L) *Ross & Cromartie*  
 Maxwell, Sir H. E., Bt. (O), *Wigton*

Maxwell, Capt. J. M. H. (L), *Kirkcud-  
   bright*  
 Meldon, C. H., LL.D. (HR), *Kildare*  
 Mellor, John Wm. (L) ... *Grantham*  
 Metge, Robert H. (HR) ... *Meath*  
 Middleton, Robert T. (L), *Glasgow*  
 Milbank, Sir F. A., Bt. (L), *York, N. B.*  
 Miles, Col. Charles W. (O), *Malmesbury*  
 Miles, Sir P. J. W., Bt. (O), *Somerset, E.*  
 Mills, Sir C. H., Bt. (O), *Kent, West*  
 Molloy, Bernard C (HR) ... *King's Co.*  
 Monckton, Francis (O), *Staffordsh. W.*  
 Monk, Charles J. (L) ..... *Gloucester*  
 Moore, Arthur (HR) ..... *Clonmel*  
 Moreton, Lord (L) ..... *Glo'stersh. W.*  
 Morgan, Col. Hon. F. C. (C), *Monm'thsh.*  
 Morgan, Rt. Hon. G. O. (L), *Denbighsh.*  
 Morley, Arnold (L) ..... *Nottingham*  
 Morley, Samuel (L) ..... *Bristol*  
 Moss, Richard (C) ..... *Winchester*  
 Mowbray, Rt. Hon. Sir J.  
   R., Bt. (C) ..... *Oxford Univ.*  
 Mulholland, John (O) ... *Downpatrick*  
 Mundella, Rt. Hn. A. J. (C), *Sheffield*  
 Muntz, Philip H. (L) ..... *Birmingham*  
 Murray, Charles J. (C) ... *Hastings*  
  
 Nelson, Isaac (HR) ..... *Mayo*  
 Newdegate, C. N. (C), *Warwicksh. N.*  
 Newport, Viscount (O) ... *Shropsh. N.*  
 Nicholson, William (L) ... *Petersfield*  
 Nicholson, W. N. (C) ... *Newark*  
 Noel, Ernest (L) ..... *Dumfries, &c.*  
 Noel, Rt. Hon. G. J. (C), *Rutland*  
 Nolan, L.-Col. John P. (HR), *Galway Co.*  
 North, Col. John S. (C) ... *Oxfordsh.*  
 Northcote, H. S., c.b. (C), *Exeter*  
 Northcote, Rt. Hn. Sir S.  
   H., Bt. c.c.b. (C) ..... *Devon, N.*  
 Norwood, C. M. (L), *Kingston-on-Hull*  
  
 O'Beirne, Major F. (HR) ... *Leitrim*  
 O'Brien, Sir P., Bt. (HR) ... *King's Co.*  
 O'Connor, Arthur (HR) ... *Queen's Co.*  
 O'Connor, Thomas P. (HR), *Galway*  
 O'Connor, Denis M. (HR) ... *Sligo Co.*  
 O'Donnell, Frank H. (HR), *Dungarvan*  
 O'Donoghue, D. (HR), (*The*  
   *O'Donoghue*) ..... *Tralee*  
 O'Gorman Mahon, J. (HR)  
   (*The O'Gorman Mahon*), *Clare*  
 O'Kelly, James (HR) ..... *Roscommon*  
 Onslow, Denzil R. (C) ... *Guildford*  
 O'Shaughnessy, Rd. (HR), *Limerick*

- O'Shea, Cpt. W. H. (HR), *Clare*  
 O'Sullivan, W. H. (HR) ... *Limerick Co.*  
 Otway, Sir A. J. T., Bt. (L) *Rochester*
- Paget, Richard H. (O) ... *Somerset, Mid.*  
 Paget, Thomas T. (L) ... *Leicestersh., S.*  
 Palmer, Charles M. (L) ... *Durham, N.*  
 Palmer, George (L) ... *Reading*  
 Palmer, John Hinde (L) ... *Lincoln*  
 Parker, Charles S. (L) ... *Perth*  
 Parnell, Chas. Stewart (HR), *Cork*  
 Parry, T. Love Jones (L), *Carnarvon, &c.*  
 Patrick, R. W. Cochran (C), *Ayrshire, N.*  
 Pease, Arthur (L) ... *Whitby*  
 Pease, Sir Joseph W., Bt. (L) *Durham, S.*  
 Peddie, John Dick (L), *Kilmarnock, &c.*  
 Peek, Sir Hen. W., Bt. (O), *Surrey, Mid.*  
 Peel, Arthur W. (L) ... *Warwick*  
 Pell, Albert (C) ... *Leicestersh., S.*  
 Pemberton, Edw. L. (O), *Kent, E.*  
 Pender, John (L) ... *Wick, &c.*  
 Pennington, Fred. (L) ... *Stockport*  
 Percy, Rt. Hn. Earl (C), *Northumberl. N.*  
 Percy, Lord Algernon (O), *Westminster*  
 Phillips, Robert N. (L) ... *Bury, Lanc.*  
 Phipps, Charles Paul (C) ... *Westbury*  
 Phipps, Pickering (O) *Northamptonsh. S.*  
 Playfair, Rt. Hn. Dr. L. (L) *Edin. &c. Univ.*  
 Plunket, Rt. Hon. D. R. (O), *Dublin Univ.*  
 Porter, Andrew M. (L), *Londonderry Co.*  
 Portman, Hon. W. H. B. (L) *Dorsetshire*  
 Potter, Thos. B. (L), *Rochdale Reform-cl.*  
 Powell, Walter R. H. (L), *Carmarthensh.*  
 Power, John O'C. (HR) ... *Mayo*  
 Power, Richard (HR) ... *Waterford*  
 Price, Capt. Geo. E. (C) ... *Devonport*  
 Price, Sir R. Green, Bt. (L), *Radnorshire*  
 Pugh, Lewis P. (L) ... *Cardigansh.*  
 Puleston, John H. (C) ... *Devonport*  
 Pulley, Joseph (L) ... *Hereford*
- Raikes, Rt. Hn. Hy. O. (O), *Preston*  
 Ralli, Pandeli (L) ... *Wallingford*  
 Ramsay, John (L) ... *Falkirk, &c.*  
 Ramsden, Sir J. W., Bt. (L), *York, W. Rid.*  
 Rankin, James (C) ... *Leominster*  
 Rathbone, William (L), *Carnarvonsh.*  
 Redmond, John E. (HR) ... *New Ross*  
 Reed, Sir E. J., K.C.B. (L), *Cardiff*  
 Reid, Robert T. (L) ... *Hereford*  
 Rendel, Stuart (L) ... *Montgomerysh.*  
 Rendlesham, Lord (O) ... *Suffolk, E.*  
 Repton, George W. J. (C), *Warwick*  
 Richard, Henry (L) ... *Merthyr Tydfil*
- Richardson, James N. (L), *Armagh Co.*  
 Richardson, Thomas (L), *Hartlepool*  
 Ridley, Sir M. W., Bt. (O), *Northumb., N.*  
 Ritchie, Capt. C. T. (O), *Tower Hamlets*  
 Roberts, John (L) ... *Flint, &c.*  
 Robertson, Henry (L) ... *Shrewsbury*  
 Rogers, J. E. Thorold (L), *Southwark*  
 Rolls, John Allan (C) ... *Monmouthsh.*  
 Ross, Charles C. (C) ... *St. Ives*  
 Ross, Major Alex. H. (C), *Maidstone*  
 Rothschild, Sir N. M., Bt. (L), *Aylesbury*  
 Round, James (O) ... *Essex, E.*  
 Roundell, Charles S. (L), *Grantham*  
 Russell, Charles (L) ... *Dundalk*  
 Russell, George W. E. (L), *Aylesbury*  
 Russell, Lord Arth. J. E. (L), *Tavistock*  
 Rylands, Peter (L) ... *Burnley*
- St. Aubyn, Sir J., Bt. (L), *Cornwall, W.*  
 St. Aubyn, W. N. M. (O), *Helston*  
 Salt, Thomas (C) ... *Stafford*  
 Samuelson, Bernhard (L), *Barnbury*  
 Samuelson, Henry B. (L), *Frome*  
 Sandon, Rt. Hon. Visct. (C), *Liverpool*  
 Schreiber, Charles (O) ... *Poole*  
 Sclater-Booth, Rt. Hon. G. (C) ... *Hants, N.*  
 Scott, Lord Henry (C) ... *Hants, S.*  
 Scott, Montagu D. (C) ... *Sussex, E.*  
 Seely, Charles (L) ... *Lincoln*  
 Seely, Charles, Jun. (L) ... *Nottingham*  
 Sellar, A. Craig (L) ... *Haddington, &c.*
- Selwin-Ibbetson, Sir H. J., Bt., (C) ... *Essex, W.*  
 Severne, John E. (C) ... *Shropshire, S.*  
 Sexton, Thomas (HR) ... *Sligo*  
 Shaw, William (HR) ... *Cork Co.*  
 Sheil, Edward (HR) ... *Meath*  
 Sheridan, Henry B. (L) ... *Dudley*  
 Shield, Hugh (L) ... *Cambridge*  
 Simon, Serj. John (L) ... *Devonbury*  
 Sinclair, Sir J. G. T. Bt. (L), *Caithness*  
 Slagg, John (L) ... *Manchester*  
 Smith, Abel (C) ... *Herts*  
 Smith, T. Eustace (L), *Tynemouth, &c.*  
 Smith, Rt. Hon. W. H. (C), *Westminster*  
 Smithwick, John F. (HR), *Kilkenny*  
 Smyth, Patrick J. (HR) ... *Tipperary*  
 Spencer, Hon. Chas. R. (L), *Northants, N.*  
 Stafford, Marquis of (L), *Sutherland*  
 Stanhope, Hon. E. (O), *Lincolnsh. Mid.*  
 Stanley, Rt. Hon. Col. F. A. (C) ... *Lancashire, N.*

- Stanley, Hon. E. Lyulph (L) *Oldham*  
 Stanley, Edward. J. (C), *Somerset, W.*  
 Stansfeld, Rt. Hon. J. (L), *Halifax*  
 Stanton, Walter John (L), *Stroud*  
 Stevenson, James C. (L), *South Shields*  
 Stewart, James (L)..... *Greenock*  
 Storer, George (C)..... *Notts, S.*  
 Storey, Samuel (L)..... *Sunderland*  
 Story-Maskelyne, M. H. N. (L) *Cricklade*  
 Stuart, H. Villiers, of Dro-  
   mana (L)..... *Waterford Co.*  
 Sullivan, Timothy D. (H R), *Westmeath*  
 Summers, William (L) ... *Stalybridge*  
 Sykes, Christopher (C) *York, E. Rid.*  
 Synan, Edmund J. (H R)... *Limerick Co.*
- Talbot, Chris. R. M. (L), *Glamorgansh.*  
 Talbot, John G. (C)..... *Oxford Univ.*  
 Tavistock, Marquis of (L), *Bedfordsh.*  
 Taylor, Peter A. (L)..... *Leicester*  
 Taylor, Rt. Hn. Col. T. E. (C) *Dublin Co.*  
 Tennant, Charles (L)..... *Peeblesshire*  
 Thomasson, John P. (L), *Bolton*  
 Thompson, Thomas C. (L), *Durham*  
 Thomson, Henry (C)..... *Newry*  
 Thornhill, Thomas (C) ... *Suffolk, W.*  
 Thynne, Rt. Hn. Lord H. (C) *Wilts, S.*  
 Tillett, Jacob H. (L)..... *Norwich*  
 Tollemache, Henry J. (C), *Cheshire, W.*  
 Tollemache, Hn. W. (C), *Cheshire, W.*  
 Torrens, Wm. T. McC. (L), *Finsbury*  
 Tottenham, A. Loftus (C), *Leitrim [ &c.*  
 Tracy, Hon. F. S. A. H. (L), *Montgomery,*  
 Trevelyan, Rt. Hn. G. O. (L), *Hawick, &c.*  
 Tyler, Sir Henry W. (C), *Harwich*
- Verney, Sir Harry, Bt. (L), *Buckingham*  
 Villiers, Rt. Hon. C. P. (L), *Wolverhampton.*  
 Vivian, Arthur P. (L) ... *Cornwall, W.*  
 Vivian, Sir H. Hussey, Bt. *Glamorgan-*  
   (L) .. ..... *shire*
- Wallace, Sir Richd., Bt. (C), *Lisburn*  
 Walpole, Rt. Hn. S. H. (C), *Cambr. Univ.*  
 Walrond, Col. Wm. H. (C), *Devon, E.*  
 Walter, Johr (L) ..... *Berks.*  
 Warburton, Piers E. (C), *Cheshire, Mid.*  
 Warton, Charles N. (C), *Bridport*  
 Waterlow, Sir S. H., Bt. (L), *Gravesend*  
 Watkin, Sir E. W., Bt. (L), *Hythe*  
 Watney, James (C) ..... *Surrey, E.*  
 Waugh, Edward (L) ..... *Cockermouth*  
 Webster, John, LL.D. (L)... *Aberdeen*  
 Welby-Gregory, Sir W. E., *Lincolnsh.,*  
   Bt. (C) ..... *S.*  
 Whalley, Capt. Geo. H. (L), *Peterborough*  
 Whitbread, Samuel (L) ... *Bedford*  
 Whitley, Edward (C)..... *Liverpool*  
 Whitworth, Benjamin (L), *Drogheda*  
 Wiggan, Henry (L) ... *Staffordshire, E.*  
 Williams, Col. Owen (C), *Gt. Marlow*  
 Williams, S. C. Evans (L), *New Radnor*  
 Williamson, Steph. (L), *St. Andrews, &c.*  
 Willis, William (L) ..... *Colchester*  
 Wills, Wm. Henry (L) ... *Coventry*  
 Willyams, E. W. B. (L) ... *Truro*  
 Wilmot, Col. Sir H., Bt. (C), *Derbysh., S.*  
 Wilmot, Sir J. E., Bt. (C), *Warwicksh. S.*  
 Wilson, C. H. (L) ..... *Kingston-on-*  
   Hull  
 Wilson, Isaac (L) ..... *Middlesbrough*  
 Wilson, Sir M., Bt. (L), *York, W. Rid., N.*  
 Winn, Rowland (C) ... *Lincolnsh., N.*  
 Wodehouse, Edm. R. (L), *Bath*  
 Wolff, Sir H. D., G. C. M. G. (C), *Portsmouth*  
 Woodall, William (L) ... *Stoke-on-Trent*  
 Woolf, Sidney (L) ..... *Pontefract*  
 Wortley, C. B. Stuart (C), *Sheffield*  
 Wroughton, Philip (C) ... *Berks.*  
 Wyndham, Hon. P. S. (C), *Cumberland, W.*  
 Wynn, Sir W. W., Bt. (C), *Denbighsh.*
- Yorke, John R. (C) ..... *Gloucester, E.*

## BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Public Revenue.	Public Expenditure.	Public Debt.	Imports.	Exports.
			£	£	£	£	£
India (British) ...	904,135	191,411,434	68,484,666	69,667,615	153,134,685	52,821,398	69,247,511
Straits Settlements...	1,445	423,384	501,776	433,276	89,200	15,620,959	14,837,849
Ceylon ...	24,702	2,638,540	1,298,365	1,337,295	1,369,661	6,013,480	4,742,614
Mauritius ...	713	377,373	782,109	757,396	799,100	2,210,114	3,656,666
Labuan ...	30	6,298	5,923	6,713	—	167,364	164,873
Hong Kong...	32.14	160,402	222,906	197,502	—	—	—
<b>Australasia:—</b>							
New South Wales	310,938	739,385	4,904,230	5,560,078	14,903,919	13,950,075	15,525,138
Victoria ...	88,198	860,067	4,621,282	4,875,029	22,060,749	14,556,894	15,954,569
South Australia ...	903,690	267,573	2,027,363	1,923,605	9,865,500	5,681,497	5,574,505
Western Australia	1,000,000	29,019	180,050	204,338	361,000	353,669	499,183
Tasmania...	26,215	114,762	439,780	423,745	1,943,700	1,369,223	1,511,931
New Zealand	105,342	484,864	3,283,396	4,019,850	28,583,231	6,162,011	6,352,692
Queensland	669,520	226,077	1,612,314	1,673,695	12,192,150	3,087,296	3,448,160
Fiji ...	8,034	124,002	80,878	91,102	210,000	185,741	229,529
Falkland Isles	6,500	1,553	6,985	6,977	—	33,505	88,564
Natal...	18,750	413,107	582,715	494,436	1,631,700	2,336,584	890,869
Cape of Good Hope	221,950	1,249,824	3,541,720	3,742,665	11,391,809	8,078,048	4,488,872
St. Helena ...	47	5,059	11,950	11,870	10,750	105,002	54,215
Lagos ...	73	60,221	47,987	55,476	288	407,370	676,510
Gold Coast ...	6,000	—	119,500	86,957	—	337,248	482,058
Sierra Leone	468	60,546	76,008	87,775	83,000	491,993	375,985
Gambia ...	69	14,150	24,553	19,926	—	191,580	138,983

[illegible]

## PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

1.—*The gross amount of revenue in the fiscal years to March 31, 1871-2, 1879-80, 1880-1, and 1881-2.*

	1871-2.	1879-80.	1880-1.	1881-2.
	£	£	£	£
Customs ... ..	20,326,000	19,326,000	19,184,000	19,287,000
Inland Revenue :—				
Excise Licenses, &c....	23,326,000	25,300,000	25,300,000	27,240,000
Stamps ... ..	9,772,000	11,300,000	11,940,000	12,260,000
Taxes ... ..	2,330,000	2,670,000	2,740,000	2,725,000
Property and Income } Tax... ..	9,084,000	9,230,000	10,650,000	9,945,000
Total Inland Revenue	44,512,000	48,500,000	50,630,000	52,170,000
Post Office ... ..	4,680,000	6,350,000	6,700,000	7,000,000
Telegraph Service ...	755,000	1,420,000	1,600,000	1,630,000
Crown Lands (Net Receipts)... ..	375,000	390,000	390,000	380,000
Interest on Advances for Local Works and on Purchase Money of Suez Canal Shares ... }	—	1,254,596	1,247,712	1,219,262
Miscellaneous :—				
Naval and Military } Extra Receipts, Army Contributions from India, and War Indemnities ... ..	2,468,932	1,925,957	2,171,935	1,869,039
Surplus Fees, Extra Receipts, Civil Departments, Unclaimed Dividends, &c. }	1,591,382	2,098,502	2,117,641	2,266,981
Total Miscellaneous...	4,060,314	4,024,459	4,289,576	4,136,020
Total Gross Income...	74,708,314	81,265,055	84,041,288	85,822,282



PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE—*Continued.*

2.—*The gross amount of expenditure in the fiscal years to March 31, 1871-2, 1879-80, 1880-1, and 1881-2.*

	1871-2.	1879-80.	1880-1.	1881-2.
	£	£	£	£
Interest & Management, &c., of National Debt:				
Funded:				
Permanent ... ..	21,947,386	21,295,957	21,285,816	21,185,241
Terminable Annuities	4,512,706	5,717,471	6,852,636	7,150,961
Unfunded ... ..	169,943	127,134	101,384	105,116
Management ... ..	209,566	208,374	208,762	208,562
New Sinking Fund ...	—	651,064	351,402	270,120
Trustee Savings Banks	—	—	—	41,836
Deficiency Annuity ... }	—	—	—	—
Total Permanent Charge of Debt ... ..	—	28,000,000	28,800,000	28,961,836
Interest on Loans not form- ing part of Permanent Charge of Debt ... .. }	—	762,874	775,264	704,109
Total Funded and Un- funded Debt ... .. }	26,839,601	28,762,874	29,575,264	29,665,945
Civil List and Civil Charges of all kinds, exclusive of Post Office Packet Service }	12,160,293	16,923,140	17,356,499	18,548,476
Forces (exclusive of Fortifi- cations, &c.):				
Army, including Ord- nance and Army Pur- chase Commission ... }	15,861,580	15,645,867	15,558,601	16,309,585
Army Indian Home Charges ... .. }	—	1,115,050	1,100,000	1,100,000
Navy, including Trans- port Service ... .. }	9,900,486	10,416,132	10,702,935	10,756,453
Abyssinian War ... ..	—	634	—	—
Vote of Credit, War in Europe ... .. }	101,097	—	—	—
Vote of Credit, Ashantee War ... .. }	—	—	—	—
Vote of Credit, Russo- Turkish War ... .. }	—	—	—	—
War in South Africa ...	—	3,244,920	—	—
Grant to India (Afghan War) ... .. }	—	—	500,000	500,000
Total for the Forces	25,863,163	30,422,603	27,953,536	28,736,038
Total Expenditure, exclusive of Cost of Collection ... }	64,863,057	76,108,617	74,885,299	76,950,459

## STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

*The total population of each division of the United Kingdom, estimated to the middle of each year, calculated from the annual rates of increase or decrease of population which prevailed during the decades covered by successive censuses, but exclusive of army, navy, and merchant seamen abroad.*

Years.	Total for United Kingdom.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Years.
1871	31,513,442	22,760,359	3,366,375	5,386,708	1871
1872	31,835,757	23,067,835	3,399,226	5,368,696	1872
1873	32,124,598	23,356,414	3,430,923	5,337,261	1873
1874	32,426,369	23,648,609	3,462,916	5,314,844	1874
1875	32,749,167	23,944,459	3,495,214	5,309,494	1875
1876	33,093,439	24,244,010	3,527,811	5,321,618	1876
1877	33,446,930	24,547,309	3,560,715	5,338,906	1877
1878	33,799,386	24,854,397	3,593,929	5,351,060	1878
1879	34,155,126	25,165,336	3,627,453	5,362,337	1879
1880	34,468,552	25,480,161	3,661,292	5,327,099	1880
1881	34,929,679	26,055,406	3,744,323	5,129,950	1881
1882	35,278,999	26,406,820	3,784,100	5,088,079	1882

## THE LOCAL TAXATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*I.—Amount of direct and indirect Taxation, and of other sources of Receipts, for the purposes of Local Expenditure in each Division of the United Kingdom in the year 1879–80.*

	England and Wales.	Scotland (partly estimated).	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	1879–80.	1879–80.	1879–80.	1879–80.
<b>Local Taxes:</b>	<b>£</b>	<b>£</b>	<b>£</b>	<b>£</b>
Direct, levied by Rates ...	25,694,477	2,622,000	2,654,719	30,971,396
Indirect, levied by Tolls, Dues, &c. }	4,574,323	1,060,000	610,005	6,244,327
Total ...	30,268,799	3,682,000	3,264,724	37,215,723
<b>Other Receipts:</b>				
Rents, Interest, &c.	764,462	253,000	71,287	1,088,749
Sales of Property ...	536,478	41,000	—	577,478
Government Contributions ...	2,733,846	556,000	106,960	3,396,806
Loans ...	13,717,911	1,122,000	263,971	15,103,882
Miscellaneous ...	4,985,826	417,000	261,200	5,664,026
Total ...	22,738,523	2,389,000	703,418	25,830,941
Total Receipts ...	53,007,322	6,071,000	3,968,142	63,046,664

LOCAL TAXATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM—*Continued.*II.—*Amount of the various branches of Local Expenditure in each Division of the United Kingdom in the years 1879–80.*

	England and Wales.	Scotland (partly estimated).	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	1879–80.	1879–80.	1879–80.	1879–80.
	£	£	£	£
By Unions and Parishes in Relief to the Poor	8,042,797	882,217	1,006,594	9,931,608
All other Parochial Ex- penditure payable out of Poor Rates	809,047	36,000	54,154	899,201
From Loans ...	533,000	82,080	—	615,080
By School Boards ...	3,651,108	1,203,953	—	4,855,061
By Town and Municipal Authorities for Police, Sanitary, and other Public Works, &c. ...	28,852,592	2,097,000	819,147	31,768,739
By Rural Sanitary Au- thorities ...	497,996	—*	50,767	548,763
By County Authorities for Police, Lunatic Asylums, &c.	2,778,499	410,000	1,145,930	6,167,240
By Highways Boards and Road Trustees	1,832,811			
By Turnpike Trusts ...	271,879			
For Bridges and Ferries	52,528	—†	—†	52,528
By Drainage and Em- bankment Authori- ties ...	354,579	—	52,237	406,816
By Burial Boards ...	503,243	—	11,984	515,227
From Church and Ec- clesiastical Rates	14,057	54,000	—	68,057
By Harbour Authorities	2,558,244	918,000	430,841	3,907,085
By Pilotage Authorities	434,550	19,900	18,549	472,999
From Light Dues (Mercantile Marine Funds) ...	235,822	62,640	80,760	379,282
By other Authorities ...	70,030	9,000	90,185	169,215
<b>Total Expenditure...</b>	<b>51,492,842</b>	<b>5,920,490</b>	<b>3,761,148</b>	<b>61,174,480</b>

*Note.*—The expenditure for Police and Education in Ireland is almost entirely provided for out of the Imperial Taxes.

\* The expenditure of Rural Sanitary Authorities in Scotland is included with that of "Town and Municipal" Authorities.

† Included in the expenditure of County Authorities.

## THE NATIONAL DEBT.

Financial Years ended 31st March.	Funded Debt.		Amount of Unfunded Debt.	Total Amount of National Debt, inclusive of Unclaimed Stock and Dividends.
	Capital of Unredeemed Funded Debt, inclusive of Unclaimed Stock and Dividends.	Estimated Capital of Terminable Annuities Computed in 3 per Cent. Stock, at £92 3.		
	£	£	£	£
1872	731,756,962	52,286,775	5,155,100	789,198,837
1873	727,374,082	50,201,768	4,829,100	782,404,950
1874	723,514,005	48,024,178	4,479,600	776,017,783
1875	714,797,715	52,311,487	5,239,300	772,348,502
1876	713,657,517	49,078,792	11,401,800*	774,138,109
1877	712,621,355	46,549,819	13,943,800*	773,114,974
1878	710,843,007	43,644,057	20,603,000*	775,090,064
1879	709,430,593	40,345,454	25,870,100*	775,646,147
1880	710,476,359	36,222,976	†27,344,900*	774,044,235
1881	709,078,526	37,547,666	22,077,500*	768,703,692
1882	709,498,547	35,539,693	18,007,700*	763,045,940

\* Including outstanding Exchequer Bonds issued for raising money for the purchase of Suez Canal Shares. In 1882 these amounted to £3,663,900.

† Including £1,000,000 borrowed in aid of Ways and Means.

Note.—The estimated Capital of the Terminable Annuities does not agree with that published in former abstracts, a different basis of calculation having been adopted.

## SHIPPING.

*The total tonnage of British and Foreign vessels (sailing and steamer) entered and cleared, with cargoes and in ballast, at ports in the United Kingdom, from and to foreign countries and British possessions.*

Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1872	28,719,090	13,781,935	42,501,025
1873	29,647,344	14,792,642	44,439,986
1874	30,089,683	15,339,274	45,428,957
1875	30,944,744	15,332,094	46,276,838
1876	33,441,979	17,342,923	50,784,902
1877	34,765,907	16,765,170	51,531,077
1878	35,291,483	16,303,596	51,595,079
1879	37,433,991	15,281,459	52,715,450
1880	41,348,984	17,387,079	58,736,063
1881	41,543,259	16,406,286	57,949,545

# BRITISH IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

## I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

		1871.	1879.	1880.	1881.
		£	£	£	£
Russia—Northern	Imports	13,700,431	11,063,115	12,497,004	10,229,568
Ports	Exports	8,171,253	9,205,303	9,414,306	7,875,944
„ Southern	Imports	10,020,944	4,813,470	3,532,691	3,823,653
Ports	Exports	1,760,987	1,401,780	1,553,211	1,401,494
Sweden and Nor-	Imports	7,567,142	8,392,723	10,989,000	10,054,051
way ...	Exports	3,438,111	3,928,682	5,132,408	5,037,236
Denmark Proper,	Imports	2,553,562	4,675,090	5,285,767	4,611,999
and Iceland ...	Exports	2,049,227	1,984,767	2,347,573	2,431,193
Danish W. Indies	Imports	34,639	35,921	70,295	43,221
	Exports	527,600	214,927	217,744	193,149
Germany ...	Imports	19,263,319	21,604,890	24,355,419	23,650,285
	Exports	38,493,772	29,623,776	29,055,844	29,276,914
Holland ...	Imports	13,970,036	21,959,384	25,909,373	23,022,985
	Exports	22,099,144	15,452,752	15,654,364	15,272,429
„ Java and					
other Pos-	Imports	470,234	1,784,140	2,236,585	2,662,872
sessions in	Exports	848,364	1,657,451	1,767,796	1,759,072
the Indian					
Seas ...					
Belgium ...	Imports	13,573,274	10,725,739	11,253,664	11,510,388
	Exports	12,815,735	11,887,442	12,987,430	13,537,445
France ...	Imports	29,848,488	38,459,096	41,970,298	39,984,187
	Exports	33,388,360	26,558,333	27,990,959	30,085,661
„ Algeria ...	Imports	443,807	454,246	741,453	750,858
	Exports	121,970	229,614	299,898	292,960
„ Possessions	Imports	—	—	6,119	4,030
in Sene-	Exports	12,046	51,988	56,444	78,032
gambia...					
„ Possessions	Imports	64,106	6,845	—	162
in India	Exports	—	23,976	10,915	14,563
Portugal... ..	Imports	3,840,869	3,025,228	3,762,504	3,357,012
	Exports	2,199,730	2,427,118	2,603,318	2,539,977
„ Azores and	Imports	454,420	215,332	227,695	206,230
Madeira	Exports	178,950	137,793	147,733	145,672
Spain ... ..	Imports	7,759,441	8,398,776	10,699,936	10,027,505
	Exports	3,983,011	3,758,717	4,078,697	4,393,821
„ Canary Is-	Imports	604,113	340,683	428,320	346,760
lands ...	Exports	214,550	229,932	257,681	221,611
„ Fernando	Imports	20,681	14,771	13,923	5,604
Po' ...	Exports	16,376	9,844	8,429	12,738
„ West India	Imports	2,632,095	2,929,826	1,752,635	1,624,498
Islands	Exports	3,214,539	2,435,890	2,291,858	2,815,386
„ Philippine	Imports	1,391,254	1,480,821	1,688,663	2,344,404
Islands	Exports	487,032	612,883	1,328,482	1,509,034
Italy ... ..	Imports	4,624,278	3,233,594	3,385,109	3,274,881
	Exports	7,666,154	6,039,778	6,333,240	7,517,734

# IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS—*Continued.*

		1871.	1879.	1880.	1881.
		£	£	£	£
Austrian Territories ...	Imports	1,238,428	1,685,602	1,430,949	1,390,001
	Exports	2,085,143	1,047,045	828,971	892,567
Greece ...	Imports	2,030,970	1,861,196	1,483,462	2,162,566
	Exports	880,504	1,081,437	918,038	1,277,570
Roumania ...	Imports	1,151,291	1,373,002	1,461,836	2,758,822
	Exports	797,877	1,097,432	1,199,262	1,426,524
Turkey ...	Imports	7,038,510	3,473,461	3,874,280	4,170,037
	Exports	6,444,447	7,705,594	7,239,689	7,389,033
Egypt ...	Imports	16,387,424	8,890,052	9,190,589	9,317,916
	Exports	7,125,355	2,208,105	3,175,060	3,340,283
Morocco ...	Imports	419,357	154,270	350,564	246,051
	Exports	240,161	314,698	300,738	326,039
United States ...	Imports	61,134,463	91,818,295	107,081,260	103,207,829
	Exports	38,692,837	25,518,789	37,954,192	36,783,047
Mexico ...	Imports	397,334	582,759	628,071	591,435
	Exports	1,218,026	765,259	1,283,080	1,685,451
Central America	Imports	1,061,611	1,385,940	1,338,926	1,197,126
	Exports	321,306	748,527	681,338	967,088
Haiti and San Domingo ...	Imports	218,559	104,239	187,212	113,797
	Exports	355,256	158,101	519,695	397,383
New Granada (United States of Colombia) ...	Imports	1,042,339	926,114	838,439	1,372,137
	Exports	2,704,793	904,296	1,074,012	1,232,873
Venezuela ...	Imports	59,515	114,804	198,304	209,641
	Exports	320,980	470,185	436,835	490,581
Ecuador ...	Imports	277,766	523,172	647,331	290,851
	Exports	67,486	297,343	367,655	260,817
Brazil ...	Imports	6,693,426	4,749,816	5,260,670	6,340,414
	Exports	6,536,945	5,986,008	6,915,419	6,914,319
Uruguay ...	Imports	1,231,993	371,990	694,593	465,497
	Exports	1,118,697	967,803	1,415,356	1,416,025
Argentine Republic ...	Imports	1,988,679	828,365	886,628	585,418
	Exports	2,541,647	2,137,537	2,541,215	3,414,672
Chili ...	Imports	3,798,361	3,738,158	3,456,633	2,730,519
	Exports	2,149,311	1,048,938	2,165,449	2,686,844
Peru ...	Imports	3,971,968	3,388,532	2,652,623	2,189,098
	Exports	2,375,528	909,011	379,795	945,304
China ...	Imports	11,929,221	11,056,935	11,834,727	10,703,778
	Exports	6,795,924	5,140,186	5,515,030	6,234,003
Japan ...	Imports	109,224	450,945	531,621	675,711
	Exports	1,746,419	2,997,522	3,813,397	3,152,261
Western Coast of Africa ...	Imports	1,942,214	1,458,745	1,890,599	1,585,373
	Exports	1,208,989	995,032	1,158,941	1,235,473
Other Countries	Imports	1,111,276	1,492,903	1,985,090	1,643,659
	Exports	598,868	1,902,897	1,465,500	1,521,361
Total of Foreign Countries ...	Imports	258,071,062	284,049,237	318,710,760	305,482,829
	Exports	228,013,406	182,274,391	204,886,897	210,401,583

# IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH POSSESSIONS—*Continued.*

## II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

		1871.	1879.	1880.	1881.
		£	£	£	£
Channel Islands	Imports	509,110	737,793	810,435	755,809
	Exports	972,432	813,166	814,799	846,279
Gibraltar ...	Imports	78,879	35,969	41,275	26,418
	Exports	1,138,923	739,665	829,673	795,949
Malta ...	Imports	157,548	184,891	201,010	169,797
	Exports	857,117	954,054	1,010,090	1,137,189
North American Colonies ...	Imports	9,291,797	10,445,694	13,388,988	11,300,818
	Exports	9,111,701	6,118,862	8,516,019	9,307,341
West India Islands & Guiana	Imports	6,979,833	7,066,269	6,571,474	5,695,626
	Exports	3,297,039	2,947,515	3,249,693	2,900,400
British Honduras	Imports	156,037	228,004	189,827	202,996
	Exports	182,026	98,622	112,887	114,418
Australia ...	Imports	14,520,143	21,964,440	25,663,334	26,975,381
	Exports	11,113,714	17,959,705	18,748,092	23,982,404
British India ...	Imports	30,737,385	24,698,213	30,117,980	32,629,435
	Exports	19,012,807	22,714,682	32,028,055	31,052,963
The Straits Settlements ...	Imports	2,696,319	2,565,361	3,697,624	3,784,157
	Exports	2,073,977	2,182,637	2,459,659	2,743,518
Ceylon ...	Imports	3,167,673	3,568,965	3,386,369	2,136,350
	Exports	971,265	827,119	1,036,900	849,499
Hong Kong ...	Imports	367,944	1,327,085	1,253,541	1,015,716
	Exports	3,024,084	3,128,227	3,967,792	3,800,189
Mauritius ...	Imports	833,386	641,836	284,485	449,487
	Exports	538,509	366,541	385,726	481,773
Cape of Good Hope and Natal ...	Imports	2,858,487	4,610,379	5,638,522	5,413,299
	Exports	2,315,300	6,369,876	7,206,000	7,691,965
W. Africa Settlements ...	Imports	142,266	118,124	157,964	160,730
	Exports	291,122	371,025	388,654	317,711
The Gold Coast...	Imports	399,654	462,026	621,284	349,464
	Exports	477,168	475,330	502,223	394,524
Other Possessions	Imports	47,957	287,589	494,693	474,177
	Exports	184,110	441,947	271,307	265,070
Total of British Possessions ...	Imports	72,944,418	78,942,638	92,518,805	91,539,660
	Exports	55,561,294	66,508,973	81,527,569	86,681,192
Total of Foreign Countries and British Possessions ...	Imports	331,015,480	362,991,875	411,229,565	397,022,489
	Exports	283,574,700	248,783,364	286,414,466	297,082,775

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

*The value of the total Imports and Exports of Merchandise (and exclusive of bullion) into and from the United Kingdom, with the proportion per head of the population.*

Years.	Imports.	Exports.			Total of Imports and Exports.	
		British Produce.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total Value of British and Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total Value.	Proportion per Head of Population of United Kingdom.
	£	£	£	£	£	£ s. d.
1871	331,015,480	223,066,162	60,508,538	283,574,700	614,590,180	19 10 1
1872	354,693,624	256,257,347	58,331,487	314,588,834	669,282,458	21 0 6
1873	371,287,372	255,164,603	55,840,162	311,004,765	682,292,137	21 4 9
1874	370,082,701	239,558,121	58,092,343	297,650,464	667,733,165	20 11 10
1875	373,939,577	223,465,963	58,146,360	281,612,323	655,551,900	20 0 4
1876	375,154,703	200,639,204	56,137,398	256,776,602	631,931,305	19 1 11
1877	394,419,682	198,893,065	53,452,955	252,346,020	646,765,702	19 6 9
1878	368,770,742	192,848,914	52,634,944	245,483,858	614,254,600	18 3 6
1879	362,991,875	191,531,758	57,251,606	248,783,364	611,775,239	17 18 3
1880	411,229,565	223,060,446	63,354,020	286,414,466	697,644,031	20 4 10
1881	397,022,489	234,022,678	63,060,097	297,082,775	694,105,264	19 17 5

## RAILWAY STATISTICS.

*The Total Length, Capital, Passengers Conveyed, Receipts and Working Expenses of the Railways in the United Kingdom.*

Years.	Length of Lines open at the end of each Year.	Total Capital Paid up.	Number of Passengers (excluding Season-Ticket Holders).	Total of Traffic Receipts.	Total of Working Expenses.	Net Traffic Receipts of Passengers and Goods.
	Miles.	£	No.	£	£	£
1872	15,814	569,047,346	422,874,822	51,304,114	26,293,304	26,957,870
1873	16,082	588,320,308	455,320,188	55,675,421	30,752,848	26,989,152
1874	16,449	609,895,931	477,840,411	56,899,498	32,612,712	26,643,003
1875	16,658	630,223,494	506,575,234	58,982,753	33,220,728	28,016,272
1876	16,872	658,214,776	534,494,069	59,917,868	33,535,509	28,680,266
1877	17,077	674,059,048	549,541,325	60,644,057	33,857,978	29,115,350
1878	17,333	698,545,154	565,024,455	60,454,375	33,198,368	29,673,306
1879	17,696	717,003,469	562,732,890	59,395,282	32,045,273	29,730,430
1880	17,933	728,316,848	603,885,025	62,961,767	33,601,124	31,890,501
1881	18,180	745,519,000	622,423,000	63,873,000	34,589,000	31,828,000



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